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ABSTRACT

Articles contained in this first issue of the journal "Child Resource World Review" present information from a worldwide network of day care professionals. Specifically, Alice Honig compares child care in different countries. Sherrie K. Akinsanya reports on stressful aspects of early schooling for children in Nigeria. Sue Owen discusses childminding in Great Britain, and Gunnel Johansson advances a proposal for a pedagogic program establishing objectives of preschool education in Sweden. Child caregivers in the United States are described by Marcy Whitebook. Beverley Mehner Windjack lists design implications and appropriate design responses for environmental factors in an optimal playground for children. Terry De Martini and Elizabeth Pot respectively describe child care services in Hong Kong and Holland. A typical day in a Zimbabwe preschool is described by Michael Ncube and Hilda Mayo. An evaluation of other-than-mother infant care in Italy is provided by Helen Ross. Louise Rosenkrantz issues a call for information to establish a global perspective on programs for children whose parents are in prison. Asenath J. Sigot offers an overview of objectives, types, and current needs of day care centers in Kenya. Rachel Sebba and Arza Churchman discuss design principles for child care centers from a psychological perspective. Child care in the People's Republic of China is described by Jean Miner. Claire Vesin discusses screening for normal infants and young children in France, and Malene Karlsson reports on family day care in Sweden. Liew Siop Hai describes the developmental day care program of the Singapore People's Association, a community development agency. Concluding remarks offer a brief note on the programs of the Princess Esin Women's Educational Center in India. (RH)



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CHILD RESOURCE WORLD REVIEW

A PUBLICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CHILD RESOURCE INSTITUTE, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

THE WORLD OF DAYCARE

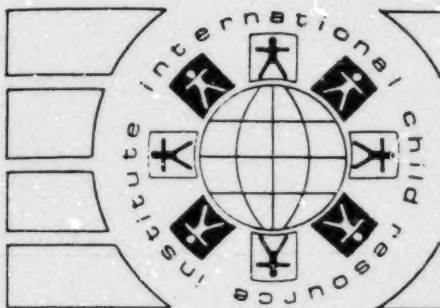


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FOREWORD

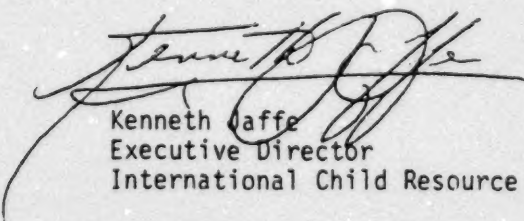
The International Child Resource Institute (ICRI) is a clearinghouse and center for information and technical assistance on issues facing families and children worldwide. The Institute gathers information from an extensive array of sources and assists agencies, governments, researchers, policy makers, teachers, parents and concerned individuals in implementing, expanding and/or enhancing family and children's programs in their own countries.

The Institute also administers projects in the areas of child abuse prevention, child care and development, conflict resolution for children, and maternal and child health.

The goal of ICRI, its staff, its international field representatives, and its multicultural network of volunteers is to keep from "reinventing the wheel" around the world for families and children. Through the provision of appropriate resources and effective technical assistance, the development of optimal programs serving the diverse needs of children and their families can be achieved.

ICRI would be pleased to receive your questions, comments and participation. Please direct correspondence or telephone calls to:

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Kenneth Jaffe
Executive Director
International Child Resource Institute

The International Child Resource Institute is proud to introduce CHILD RESOURCE WORLD REVIEW, a quarterly journal highlighting children's issues. The first edition focuses on Daycare Services for Young Children.

The development of urbanization and industrialization, the increase in women entering the labor force, the increase in the divorce rate and single families are common trends seen in countries worldwide. However, the means by which these countries address the daycare needs of their working families poses many questions:

Who should be responsible for the financing, monitoring and setting standards for daycare? Government? Employer? Family?

How can daycare programs be structured to provide optimal services in education, health, nutrition?

How can daycare programs effectively meet the needs of children, parents, employers and the community?

Should daycare providers or teachers be considered professionals?

How can the architecture of daycare programs effectively respond to the developmental needs of children?

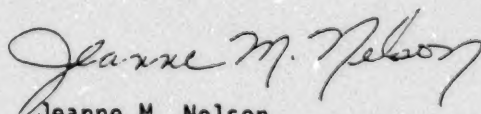
What is quality daycare?

ICRI's Childcare Division has undertaken the task of studying these questions in an effort to compare and contrast daycare policy and model programs in many countries. The result of this concerted effort has been the development of a worldwide network of individuals and organizations who are concerned about the care of children and desire to exchange their expertise with others of like mind.

The articles contained in this quarter's journal represent a compendium of information, opinions and expertise by daycare professionals (teachers, daycare workers, childminders, university professors and policy makers) from this network. Some of these authors write from direct experience with daycare in their respective countries while others write from their experience as the Institute's International Liaisons and observers of daycare in foreign lands. The overwhelming volume of articles received attests to the enthusiastic support for a forum in which daycare professionals can share their expertise and learn from the model daycare programs of their colleagues in other countries.

A special thank you to all who submitted articles to this edition. Space and time has permitted but a few of the articles to be published. We encourage our readers to direct questions, debate or general discussion to these authors whose addresses are provided at the end of the journal.

We hope you enjoy this edition and welcome your comments, suggestions, and future articles.



Jeanne M. Nelson
Director of Child Resources
International Child Resource Institute

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Comparison of Child Care in Different Countries

by: Alice Sterling Honig, Ph.D.

United States

Child care needs are met in different ways in different countries. Some nations have given more attention, some much less, to the needs of children and their families for safe and intellectually and emotionally nourishing environments in which to grow. These needs may be particularly acute if parents are working or are immigrants in a country.

From my travels as a visitor to child care facilities in many lands, I should like to present some examples of child care facilities found in different societies that have dealt with the problem of child care in different ways. Governments and citizens have shown different degrees of awareness of the developmental needs of young children, and different degrees of commitment to help organize quality child care facilities.

In East Germany, working women have the right to day care facilities for their children for ten hours per day. The Clara Zetkin Day Care Center in Jena, for example, houses programs for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers. Health care standards are very strict. The Director is required to have three years of special child care education and staff is expected to have two years of training. An impressively thick child care manual spells out clearly the tasks and responsibilities of staff. Infants were cuddled and talked to while being diapered; gentle relaxed toilet training procedures were used. Teachers sang with toddlers and proudly showed off, using a pitch pipe to help the little one begin, how well their toddlers could sing songs such as "Teddy, teddy, tanze!" The staff was professional and loving; they promoted educational as well as practical living goals with very young children. Outdoors in the large play yard, an artificially created stream allowed water play for more than the usual four children that can be accommodated at a rectangular water play table.

In child care facilities visited in The People's Republic of China, day care equipment varied greatly, depending on the economic resources available in each community. But even in an agricultural commune, where few frills or toys existed for children, the caregivers obviously were courteous, concerned, warm, attentive and proud of the little ones in their care. Many physical games were used to help build skills and agility and give pleasure in body movement as well as promote sharing and cooperation. Paper mache brightly colored props, obviously hand made, were used to permit sociodramatic play such as riding a choo-choo train, or pretending to plant and harvest giant vegetables from a garden. Despite the lack of Western material resources and toys in many urban and rural centers visited, there was a strong emphasis on aesthetics in Chinese child care centers (Honig, 1978a, 1978b). Facial make-up and homemade costumes or crepe paper streamers and flowers often served to enhance children's play and performance. Songs were an integral part of the curriculum. Adults and children obviously had spent a great deal of time together singing and learning songs and little dances. Even during a chance meeting of day care teachers and their preschoolers on a path on a tea plantation commune, we were able to enjoy brief songs and accompanying actions as the children and adults carried out singing play games. Another important aspect of Chinese child care during two separate visits to such facilities (both during and four years after the Cultural Revolution) was the strong emphasis given to teaching and encouraging prosocial and caring interpersonal actions among children. Just as teaching

colors or shapes might be important for a preschool teacher in the West, teaching moral concern for the rights and needs of others was built into informal games, formal lessons and into even the type of playground equipment used. Some of the games and swings worked best if children cooperated in moving and swinging legs together. Despite lack of formal training in Piaget or Erikson, more integration of developmental principles with very young children was observed than in many child care settings in the West, where child development theorists are far better known. The children's responses to a visitor's gifts, such as balloons or soap bubble jars or slinkies, showed how well the prosocial curricula have worked. There was intense interest and desire for new toys but also very little shoving or pushing to get something before another child did.

In Paris, France, where large numbers of North African immigrants work in the automobile factories and at other jobs, child care is available for infants in creches and in the public school Ecole Maternelle for children from 2½ years of age. Social workers make every effort to help families enroll small children in the Ecole Maternelle as this is considered the most rapid way for a child to learn to speak French and to learn basic cognitive and social skills that will be required on entrance to early school grades. The quality of the care differs very much in different communities. Some of the Ecole Maternelles I visited were filled with equipment, toys, art materials and construction materials in a profusion of shapes and colors. Sometimes the caregivers were trained in early childhood education. Sometimes caregivers seemed to have less knowledge about the process of luring and motivating and arousing the curiosity and love of learning in young children. How important individual teachers seemed! Rather than fancy toys as a panacea, what comes clear after visiting a variety of such educational settings, is how important are adult qualities of: insight, sensitivity, caring, sense of humor, and genuine interest and pleasure in each child's unique way of developing and learning.

Where custodial or routinized child care situations exist in different places, whether in Western or in developing nations, then young children are being shortchanged, even though their working parents may feel relief that child care of any kind is available. Visits to child care facilities in a variety of cultural settings confirms the important fact that when governments really believe that small children are priceless resources, then they will help to establish child care settings not only as aids to working parents, but as places where young children can learn how to become intellectually ready for school tasks as well as socially concerned for each other and for adults. Quality child care, even with limited material resources, can create good playmates, good learners, and caring human beings as well as serve the needs of working parents.

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Early Schooling in Nigeria: A Stressful Situation for Children

by: Dr. Sherrie K. Akinsanya

Nigeria

Early childhood education in Nigeria has had a rapid, but rather distinctive history. For generations, it was the extended family that offered the care and early education to the young child, whether it be given by an elder of the family or merely a child who, by virtue of being several years older, was given the "job" of caretaker. With the introduction of formal schooling in the nineteenth century, dominated by a strong religious bias, children of a select few started school at mid-childhood. The intent of such schooling was to prepare the child for service to the colonial English "Masters."

By the turn of the century, formal schooling had infiltrated to all parts of Nigeria, but most prominence was given to schools in the southern regions, whereas the strong Muslim traditions in the North impeded its progress. The impact of rapid technological change in the 20th century affected many traditional institutions, but perhaps the family unit, more than any other institution, underwent radical change at least at the surface level. A broader range of occupations was opened to boys, and to a lesser extent, to girls. Schools tried to cater to these changes, attempting to modify curriculum as appropriate. However, the strong English heritage maintained strict divisions between academic and manual skills learning. Students graduating from the academically-oriented schools were consequently "streamed" into white collar jobs with higher pay. These same students were to become the parents of those children who would begin to receive the first formal nursery school training in Nigeria. Due to their own educational background, these parents began to feel that the earlier a child begins school, the better would be his/her chances to "succeed" in the society -- a society becoming increasingly more sensitive to the power of money.

These parental feelings that "early to school - early to learn - makes Kemi or Wale willing to earn!" are not the only reasons for the development of nursery education in Nigeria. Not inconsequential has been the fact that families, who a few decades ago remained in their hometowns in the rural area, have moved to the urban centers in hopes of a more affluent lifestyle with better opportunities for themselves and their children. Families, who could afford domestic help, can no longer find domestic workers. The rising cost of living makes it necessary for women to find jobs outside the home or market. Although there is a long history of working women in Nigeria as traders and marketwomen, where children literally "come along for the ride," strapped to mothers' backs, new employment opportunities in businesses and industries force the women to find alternative caretakers. Industrial day care centers are just beginning to be developed in a few large foreign production plants in a few large cities.

Primarily based on these two reasons: the early to school, early to earn concept and the working mother dilemma, large urban day care centers and nursery schools were built, and have become, in most cases, flourishing private businesses. The Nigerian Policy in Education (1977; under current study by the new military regime) established preschool education as a private, nongovernmental concern but encouraged states to establish guidelines and training programs for employees and owners of such enterprises. The Policy also mandated nine years of obligatory schooling with universal primary education and a

secondary school system divided into three years of junior and three years of senior secondary schooling to cater to the needs of non-academically-oriented as well as academically-oriented students. These mandates actually set the tone for preschool education in Nigeria -- at least for the centers that have been developed in the most densely populated state of Lagos which includes the current capitol city. If all children are to attend primary schools, in a state where relatively few primary schools existed prior to 1978, what are the repercussions of such a policy? -- crowded classrooms of 40-50 children each, insufficiently trained or untrained teachers, lack of books and other untrained teachers, lack of books and other teaching aids, and so forth. Is it any wonder then, that parents turn to the preschool in hopes of offering their child a "head-start" towards success in a primary school that is less than conducive to learning?

Statistics received from the Lagos State Ministry of Education show that in 1972 there were 43 pre-primary institutions. By 1977 the number had risen to 76; 1979 to 106; 1982 to 212, showing a 400 percent increase within a ten-year period. The Federal Ministry of Information, Youth and Social and Cultural Development, which is responsible for day care centers, estimates, informally, that there are anywhere from 500 to 1000 day care centers, baby-minders, and infant centers in the state (1984). The environments of these various institutions vary from ideal schools to appalling centers in dirt compounds and makeshift buildings and garages. The oldest recorded preschool to be licensed by the State Ministry of Education was established in 1949. But the majority of schools have been in existence less than fifteen years.

The School Environment

Nursery schools operate on the same schedule as primary schools, open 4½-5 hours per day from 8:00 AM to 1:00 PM. Day care centers open for longer periods, 6:00 AM to 6:00 PM to cater to working mothers. It is not uncommon for a child to go to one nursery school in the morning and then off to the day care center in the afternoon. A study of parental attitudes toward nursery education (Osanyin, 1979) showed that parents considered nursery schools to have a strong academic bias, favoring the early "head-start" philosophy previously mentioned.

Enrollments are large -- with an average classroom size of 35 for nursery schools and 42 for day care centers (classrooms for three to five year olds). An average of six teachers and one supervisor/owner complete the staff. The teachers have little or no preschool training, although a fair proportion (in some cases over 50 percent) are trained primary school teachers. "Aunties" or teaching assistants cater to the primary physical needs of the children while the teachers conduct the child's "formal" training. There is a sharp demarcation between the "aunty" and the teacher and relatively little free flow of ideas or professional exchange between the two. When a teacher finishes "teaching" she retires to her desk until the next scheduled "subject" appears on the timetable.

Timetables are clearly posted in each school and day care center. The subjects include: Letters (often seen as Language), Numbers (most commonly seen as Mathematics), Science, and Social Studies. Art, Music, and Story Telling are special events occurring once or twice weekly. This academic environment is further enhanced by individual chairs or benches, often lined up in rows that stretch from one end of the classroom to the other, with little freedom of

movement. If a child desires to move, he/she must climb over chairs or walk on desks! Exercise books to record the child's work, report cards, end-of-term examinations, and strict adherence to maintaining discipline by demanding that children remain in their seats are common features of these nursery schools/day care centers. All this occurs in a classroom the size of an average dining room.

This may seem to paint a bleak picture, perhaps to those who have seen other alternatives; but to the average Nigerian parent or preschool teacher, these schools and day care centers are an undisguised blessing. They are the hope for the future educational progress of the child. The only child who survives the system is the one who can pass the examinations offered at each crossroad of his/her educational career. Knowing your letters and numbers becomes the all-important criteria for future success in the primary school. The only way to each, as experience dictates, is by rote memorization and repetition.

Goals for Preschool Education

In order to further study the Lagosian preschool system, the author conducted several research studies/workshops using preschool teachers and day care center assistants and supervisors as subjects. The principal purpose of these studies was to determine: 1) whether or not teachers had some understanding or knowledge of nonacademic goals for preschool education; and 2) what problems/areas of weakness seem to be hindering the implementation of these nonacademic goals. These studies, three in number, were carried out from 1980-1984 using three different samples. The first study, conducted in 1980, sampled 156 teachers in twenty-five nursery schools in Lagos State, using a Likert-type questionnaire. The majority of these teachers held secondary education certificates and above and had been teaching over five years. The second study conducted in 1982-1983 surveyed forty teachers in a preschool training program at the University of Lagos, twelve teachers at the University Nursery School and forty day care center workers in Lagos State. The researcher administered two tests to these subjects: 1) MOPS (Motivation for Occupation Preference Scale); and 2) VII (Vocational Interest Inventory) both of which have been standardized for use in Nigeria (Bakere, 1971). The third study modified a Head Start Skills Test (1975) using only those skills requiring some fine/gross motor abilities. The subjects for this study were forty day care center workers from Lagos State enrolled in a training workshop conducted by the Federal Ministry of Social and Cultural Development (January-March, 1984). Brief summaries of these three studies are presented here. In total, 152 females and 40 males participated in these studies.

A. Teachers' Views Toward Preschool Education

The questionnaire used in this study stated a series of questions revolving around one of two preschool objectives: 1) preschool viewed as the development of social-emotional skills in a socialization environment; and 2) preschool viewed as an extension of primary school as a structure cognitive environment. The results are summarized as:

1. The older teacher and the teacher with more experience views preschool education more as a program of socialization skills.
2. All teachers seemed to have a basic knowledge/understanding of what a program of socialization skills would entail; however, the most common statement was that "nursery school children should gain a good academic background."

3. Teachers (78.2%) preferred a program of classroom activities which not only taught cognitive readiness skills but fostered: a) beginning reading, b) elementary addition and subtraction, and c) beginning composition!
4. Few teachers (15.8%) favored an environment for learning through free play, independent choice of activity or small group participation.

B. Teacher Attitudes Toward Preschool Teaching as a Profession

If, as this author supports, preschool environments in Nigeria, specifically Lagos State, need to more critically support the development of social-emotional skills and diminish the strong structured cognitive orientation, then we need to better understand the motivations of the preschool teacher in supporting the structural cognitive orientation. Could part of the answer lie in a teacher's motivation and preferences for preschool teaching as a profession? Perhaps preschool teachers enter this profession as a "last resort" and teaching in a cognitively structured environment is easier than teaching in a more open environment. In this second study, the MOPS and VII were administered to preschool teachers in training, teachers already teaching in a nursery school, and day care center assistants and supervisors. The results are briefly summarized:

1. 33% of the sample chose teaching as their preferred occupation. Of the remaining, most preferred occupations in businesses/industries or the medical/legal professions. Of the 33% choosing teaching only 18% would prefer preschool teaching over primary school teaching.
2. When questioned regarding the reasons for their preferences (choosing from: (a) external influences, (b) reward-oriented values, (c) self-expression values, and (d) people-oriented values), those who chose teaching as a profession scored highest on people-oriented values and second on external influences. Preferences for the other occupations strongly supported reward-oriented values.
3. In administering the VII to the teachers, it was hoped that their interests would lie in the areas of "artistic," "musical," "literary," "service," as these are interests which could foster a more socializing preschool environment. The highest mean scores computed from ten (10) different interest groups were obtained from literary and service interests. However, "musical" and "artistic" interests were the two lowest mean scores. The third highest mean score was obtained by the category of "persuasive" interests.

C. Preschool Teachers' Skills Test

This test, developed by the researcher, was a modification of the skills test used with Head Start children. After careful observations of preschool teachers in action, this observer began to note that many teachers lacked the physical abilities so necessary to teaching in a preschool class, e.g., cutting with scissors, tearing paper, jumping, skipping. To support these observations, a short skills test was developed and administered to forty (40) participants in a preschool workshop. The results were:

(N = 40)	
<u>Skill Tested</u>	<u>No. Able to Perform</u>
1. Cutting on a fold	3
2. Using scissors to cut a straight line	8
3. Using paste/glue neatly with no spillage	24
4. Tearing out a letter or shape	22
5. Jumping	32
6. Throwing a ball (3 tries) in a straight line	10
7. Catching a ball (3 tries)	5
8. Skipping	0
9. Singing a song	36
10. Marching to music (or walking in time)	34

Although the researcher knows that this is by no means a conclusive test of teachers' skill development, and that the test itself is subjected to researcher bias, she does believe that the trends shown above detail some possible reasons why preschool teachers adhere to such a structured environment -- their own basic skills are just not sufficiently developed to allow them confidence in performing the same in the classroom.

Conclusion

Early childhood education in Nigeria has become a prosperous burgeoning business. As with many businesses and industries that develop "overnight" in rapidly changing technological societies, the Nigerian preschool business has mushroomed with little regard for rules and regulations and even less theoretical and practical know-how. This is not to say that Nigeria should import educational philosophies, theories, methods or even whole educational systems in total or in part. For as B. Bloom states for the United States can hold true for Nigeria:

If I could have one wish for education during the next decade, it would be the systematic ordering of our basic knowledge in such a way that what is known and true could be acted on, for what is superstition, fad and myth, can be recognized as such; and used only when there is nothing else to support it in our frustration and despair (Bloom, 1979).

In some instances, frustration is experienced because there are no ready adaptations for the educational practices deemed important for Nigerian learners. In other instances, Nigerians have quickly learned how to deal responsibly with problems.

The chances for improvement in the very near future do not look very positive. The stressful conditions are being felt by the children - the child who at age three bites her fingernails to the quick - the nursery school child who comes home and says, "Mommy, my teacher says I paint too much!" or the child whose parent says, "Throw that piece of junk away," after the child has carefully sculpted his wooden ship.

The situation is equally perplexing to the teacher - one who is not really interested in being in the teaching profession; a second one who does not have the requisite skills to cope with a wide variety of activities; or a third who on the end-of-the-year "examination" spells pepper as peper. But "there is prestige in attending a good nursery school," says the parent. This must be recognized as a current fad to which there are other alternatives, which can be supported even in these frustrating times. Nigerians will find these alternatives -- the sooner, the better, to relieve the stressful conditions under which these young children begin their learning.

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Childminding in Great Britain

by: Sue Owen

Great Britain

Child care in Great Britain follows a familiar pattern for readers in the United States. We have full-time care for working parents in day nurseries run by local councils and in private day nurseries run by individuals or community groups. We also have care provided by childminders, our equivalent of family day care. In reality most council day nursery places are taken by children from social work caseloads and are not available for working families; families which cannot afford the fees charged by private nurseries or nannies use childminders who currently charge an average fee of £22 per week for full-time care including meals (approximately \$33.00). In the part-time sector we have nursery schools and classes run by the Education Department and preschool play groups which are usually run by individuals or community groups and which resemble parent participation groups. With the exception of nursery schools and classes all this provision comes under the regulation of the Department of Health and Social Security and has to be registered and inspected (and, we hope, supported) by local social services departments.

One of the major problems with our child care, particularly in the full-time sector, is that there just isn't enough of it and, with Conservative Government's cut-backs on local spending, this is likely to get much worse in the future. At the moment there is a national average of eleven day nursery places per thousand children under five years of age. Obviously the majority of working families have to use childminders. The National Childminding Association was set up in 1977 to try to ensure that this major form of child care was given the recognition and the support which it needs; over the last six years, some enormous gains have been made. For instance, we now have over 10,000 members, most of whom are childminders in local groups scattered across the country. There are about 47,000 childminders in Britain, so we still have a long way to go to organize them all, but we are thrilled to have reached such a high membership in such a short time. Childminders are also becoming an established part of the child care system; even though they have been providing child care since the industrial revolution, there has been a tendency to take childminders for granted and to treat them as unskilled home workers without the knowledge or the initiative to be involved in child care policy. This is now changing and the National Association, which is run by childminders, is regularly consulted by central and local government and by other voluntary organizations. We also publish a wide range of books and pamphlets and have just produced a handbook for childminders, a guide for parents and a report on the legislation which governs childminders. In local areas childminders are also fighting to take more control over their own situations and are frequently represented on preschool forums and on groups which plan training courses and support services. The Association has worked particularly hard to persuade local councils that they should provide adequate resources for minders: It isn't enough just to inspect someone's home and issue her with a registration certificate. We have pressed that councils should employ specialist childminding workers who will have the time to visit minders regularly, put on appropriate training courses (in consultation with childminders themselves) and who will have the resources to provide support services such as drop-in centres, toy libraries, equipment loan schemes and group meetings. We are

pleased to see that more and more areas have appointed specialist workers but they don't usually get the level of resources which they need to do a thorough job. The Association itself has been quite well supported at central government level and can produce more than ever before, but we need to be able to work in partnership with council workers who can provide the day-to-day support for individual childminders and this is the level at which funding is being withdrawn. This is particularly important today because more and more social services departments are asking childminders to look after children with problems of various kinds and with special needs. As we have seen, there are not enough nursery places for such children and, moreover, the social worker might feel that the child and her family could benefit from the close continuity of care which a minder and her small group of children can provide. Most councils have, at some time or another, paid for a child to be placed with a childminder and many have now set up "subsidy" or "sponsorship" schemes under which children who would be eligible for day nursery places can be paid for with a childminder. Financially, this can be a great help both to parents and to childminders but we frequently have complaints from minders that they are not given the back-up which they need with these children. An example of this comes from a report by Devon Social Services which highlights the case of a social worker who took a referred child and her mother to the childminders but did not stay with them for the visit. The child was distressed and withdrawn, didn't settle and took several weeks before she would play. The minder had been told very little about the family but later found out that the child was at risk of abuse and that the family had a number of problems. She felt very strongly that more information should be given to minders so that they can assess how to work with the child and so that they are less vulnerable to accusations by parents. This is just one of the ways in which childminders can be undervalued and not treated as professional colleagues.

Every year the National Association holds its AGM as part of a conference on childminding. Last year, a senior social worker said the following to me:

I was stunned today, I had no idea that this discussion would be so good. Childminders were getting up and speaking and really making their points well - I think they have to be taken seriously now. I've certainly learned a lesson today.

It might sound patronizing, but at least it was honest and it is part of the process which we hope will transform childminding in the next few years. This should not be at the expense of other forms of child care for the Association firmly believes that Britain should have a comprehensive system within which parents have a real choice about the sort of care their children receive. At the moment, however, childminders are seen as poor relations and we won't get a viable, high quality child care system until they are taken seriously and given the tools they need to do a good job.

Proposal: Pedagogic Preschool Program in Sweden

by: Gunnel Johansson

Sweden

(Translated by Anna Ingenito)

Background

The preschool in Sweden is comprised of day care centers open approximately 12 hours/day (for children of parents who are employed or studying), and part-time groups with a duration of approximately 3 hours/day. School obligation begins at age seven. All 6-year-olds have a right to preschool placement. About 75% of the 6-year-olds participate in part-time groups and about 25% in day care centers. Among the 5-year-olds approximately 15% are in part-time groups and 25% in day care centers. The day care centers accept children from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year of age.

The same goals and orientation regarding the pedagogic activity apply to both forms of preschool. Pre-school teachers and child care workers are found in both forms, approximately 50-50 of each category. The training period is 2½ and 2 years respectively.

In day care centers there are, on an average, 4 children per child group worker; in the part-time groups there are two employees per 18-20 children. The day care center usually includes 12-18 children, depending on the children's age.

The activity is regulated by law, specifying the overall objectives. More recently preschool personnel have called for a nationally composite frame program, specifying goals, content, and work approach. Even preschool administrators and rational politicians have requested a common pedagogic program which would specify what the objectives of Swedish preschool are, and what parents and the rest of society can demand of the preschool because of its substantial expansion in the seventies.

The costs of preschool activity are paid by the state (approximately 40%), communities wherein preschools operate (50%), and by the parents through fees (10%).

In December 1983 the Central Board of Social Services published a proposal outlining a pedagogic program for the preschool. The proposal was the result of work within a panel of experts connected with the Board. The panel members had experience with practical preschool activity, administration of preschools on the community level, training of personnel, and research.

The purpose of the program is to clarify the goal and content of the Swedish preschool and thereby contribute to a homogeneous and positive development of the activity.

Such a development requires, according to the program proposal, initiatives on the national level, the municipal level, and the individual preschool. Important efforts (on the three levels) are:

- A central pedagogic program for all Swedish preschools, day care centers as well as part-time groups.
- Communal guidelines for the pedagogic preschool activity.

- Pedagogic planning of the activity in each individual preschool.

The pedagogic program is limited to principles. It clarifies preschool goals and sets policies regarding content and methods. The program is a basis for determining communal guidelines and planning individual preschool programs by the staff. The connection between the three levels of responsibility conveys a process for the realization of the program. On each level pedagogic competence and opportunity for action are required to achieve a positive development of the preschool.

The pedagogic program proposal has been worked out with these efforts in mind. The main chapter describes preschool goals, content, and methods. One chapter gives principles for working out communal guidelines and one chapter gives the principles for the planning done by preschool personnel.

The program is primarily directed to the organizations of community leaders as an administrative aid in planning, guiding, and developing the preschool activity. It also addresses preschool personnel and parents and ought to be of interest to others who are promoting the development of the preschool, working with preschoolers or within fields connected with the preschool.

The chapter on the goals, content and methods of working is based on some important principles:

- A comprehensive view of children, their development and milieu.
- The anchoring of the activity in the local environment, socially and culturally.
- Care and concern are part of the pedagogic activity.
- The child group is viewed as a resource.
- Active cooperation with the parents.

The preschool task is to foster the children in cooperation with the parents and along democratic values. The task includes supporting the children's development and successively giving them widened knowledge and experience of the surrounding world in a consciously planned manner.

The figure below is chosen to clarify the structure of the preschool goals, content and methods of working.

Child
Development

Social goals

- democracy
- equality
- solidarity
- security
- responsibility

Preschool
Pedagogic Activity

Work
Play
Learn

Five subject areas

- language
- picture and form
- sound and movement
- social environment
--orientations
- nature knowledge

The preschool activity is here described from four aspects:

- The social goals democracy, equality, solidarity, security and responsibility refer to all social services. The preschool should convey this view of the individual and the society as well.
- Child development indicates a broader view where knowledge of the socialization of children and the importance of child milieu are added to an emphasis on developmental psychology.
- Work-play-learn. This concept has for a long time indicated the preschool's methodology. Here the importance of play and everyday work is emphasized: the preschool children learn primarily through play and work.
- The subject areas language, picture and form, sound and movement, social orientation to the environment and nature knowledge, have been selected to structure activities mainly offering knowledge and experience. The purpose is to facilitate a balance and development of the content in the preschool. The subject areas are not to be treated separately but become integral parts of play, everyday tasks, and organized activities in a thematic work approach.

The chapter on communal guidelines refers to the increased responsibility of the communities regarding the quality of the preschool. Further development of pedagogic activity in the preschools requires increased communal guidance and coordination.

Through guidelines worked out and politically accepted by the communities, a necessary weighing of aspects concerning quality and resources will occur. The pedagogic program forms a basis for the establishment of these guidelines. However, good knowledge of the community's preschool activities is also required. The participation of preschool personnel in the decision-making is stressed, as well as that of parents and organizations. Therefore, the working out of

guidelines becomes an important forum for discussion of quality and finances among different groups, not unimportant in times of financial restrictions.

In several communities work is underway to develop guidelines for the pedagogic activity, but the experiences are still limited. The development of working out guidelines is best seen as a long-range process. Forms of working and levels of reporting may differ to accommodate a particular community.

The program proposal includes suggestions for short-range and long-range planning in general terms as well as positions on the governing organizations, the preschool personnel, the child groups, cooperation efforts with the parents, coordination and other activities, pedagogic planning, continuing education and developmental work.

In the chapter about pedagogic planning of the preschool, staff responsibility is stressed. Staff is responsible for goal-directed activity planning and for contacting the parents. The planning, based on the pedagogic program and community guidelines, requires that staff have good knowledge of the preschool children, their experiences and milieu.

A yearly more detailed evaluation is suggested as part of the planning. In this evaluation, staff together with the parents are to draw up a developmental plan and indicating areas in need of development and improvement. The idea is that the developmental plan will be submitted to the communal supervisory organization as an important foundation for planning, developmental work, and revision of community guidelines. Thereby, the developmental plan will become an essential part of the communication between the individual preschools and the community leadership.

The Swedish parliament, after debates during the spring of 1984, is expected to adopt the proposal in a final form during the fall of 1984. Four publications have been introduced to widen and deepen the discussions regarding the scope of the preschool:

- Pedagogic Programs in Other Countries by Dr. Gunni Karrby.
- Work-Play-Learn by psychologist Eva Noren-Bjorn.
- Swedish Preschool - A Review by Research Assistant Jan-Erik Johansson.
- What We Do in Preschool by Pedagogic consultant Ulla-Britta Bruun.

As the preschool program is limited to general principles, complementary material aimed at preschool personnel is needed. This material is published under the title: Work in the Preschool. In this series several publications are expected to appear within the next few years. During 1984 two pamphlets will be published concerning children's language development and how the preschool can support this development as well as the ability to read and write. The second pamphlet will deal with pedagogic planning.

Work has begun concerning a pedagogic program proposal for leisure centers as well as how the preschool program can be applied to children in family day care

or hospitals. In connection with a new system for financial aid to child care 30 million Swedish Crowns have been reserved for local developmental and innovative work. The funds available from July 1, 1984 are mainly intended for community developmental projects and will be distributed by the cabinet upon special request. The funds make support of local development work possible in conjunction with the pedagogic program.

The proposal for a pedagogic preschool program and the four complementary pamphlets can be ordered from Liber Publishing Co., Order, 16289 Stockholm, Sweden. Phone: 08-739-9130. Price in Swedish Crowns: 25 and 28, respectively.

Who Is Caring For Our Children?
Child Caregivers in the United States

by: Marcy Whitebook

United States

In the United States, debates about what constitutes high quality child care can be heard in almost every gathering of child care professionals, parents and concerned policymakers. Physical environments, curriculum and parent involvement are frequently mentioned as key ingredients for the "quality pie." Yet there is little agreement about what actually constitutes a high quality environment or program. Indeed the only area of consensus about quality centers on caregivers themselves, the actual providers of services: those who have received some child related training appear to consistently engage in more positive interactions with children. (Abt, 1979; Divine-Hawkins, 1981.)

Ironically, while there is acknowledgement of the importance of caregivers in delivering good care and the need for appropriate staff training, current social policy and trends work against achieving this goal. Child care work is considered a low status and unskilled profession by the general public and is compensated at a very low level. Thus, it is difficult to attract and maintain well-trained caregivers. Many who have been working with young children for several years find themselves in a terrible bind: they enjoy their work but feel they must seek another type of employment in order to maintain themselves and their families. Others who are interested in pursuing a career in child care are persuaded against it when they learn of the limited job mobility and security available. (Whitebrook, et al., 1982.)

There are two major groups of child caregivers in the United States: family day care providers (those who care for a small number of children in their own homes) and center staff (those who work in a community facility serving a larger number of children). There are approximately two million family day care providers and some 400,000 center staff. And, due to the increasing number of mothers with young children entering the labor force and thus the growing need for child care services, the numbers of caregivers can be expected to increase significantly over the next decade.

Family day care providers are almost exclusively female. Most are not regulated by any governmental agency. Those caring for their own child(ren) tend to be younger, ranging between 20 and 40 years old; those caring for non-relatives often are older, ranging between 30 and 60 years old. Very few family day care providers have received training related to child care. Almost all work very long hours; a twelve to fourteen hour day is not uncommon. As a group, they are very low paid. Most do not earn the minimum wage set by the government when expenses and hours of work are calculated. Turnover is high among these women, estimated to be almost 50% in the first year of operation. (Divine-Hawkins, 1981.)

Center staff are also primarily female (about 90%). Most are under forty years of age. In contrast to family day care providers, many have considerable education and training in early childhood or a related field. Yet despite these differences in education, centers' staff share low wages with their family day care colleagues. Most earn only slightly more than the minimum wage and few receive paid benefits such as health or dental insurance. Many even fail to receive paid holidays, vacations, or sick leave. Turnover at most centers is between 15-30% a year as compared to 10% for other, better compensated human service occupations. (Abt, 1979; Seiderman, 1979; and Whitebrook et al., 1982.)

Surveys of most workplaces in the United States reveal that people don't like what they spend their time doing on the job. Job satisfaction, if it exists at all, stems from compensation, status and security. In the child care field, however, the opposite is true. Most of those who do the work like it very much. They find it stimulating, rewarding and creative. Their dissatisfaction rests with their pay and public image. (Whitebrook, et al., 1982.)

In recent years concern about the situation of child caregivers has grown among those working in early childhood programs. Advocates are beginning to challenge the myth that child care is unskilled, "women's work." Too, they are joining with other female workers who are demanding a just wage, equal to that received by men doing comparably skilled work. Finally, caregivers are recognizing the desperate need for additional government or employer support for child care services given the limited resources of families. (Most families do not currently receive sufficient assistance in meeting the costs of services.)

The Child Care Employee Project is one group working to address the needs of caregivers for better compensation and improved public respect. The CCEP was formed in 1980 and is supported by a grant from a private foundation. (The Rosenberg Foundation.) The CCEP publishes a quarterly newsletter, and articles focused on strategies to improve wages and working conditions. It also provides technical assistance to individuals and groups about work related problems. CCEP represents child care staff at public hearings and engages in efforts to education and influence policymakers at the local and national level. Finally, CCEP provides training for staff at an in-service and pre-service level.

The CCEP, in conjunction with International Child Resource Institute, is collecting information about child caregivers in other countries. We hope this information will assist us in influencing policymakers locally as well as be useful to others around the world. If you can share information about child caregivers in your country, please write to us and we will send you a survey. Thanks in advance for your assistance.

If you are interested in finding out more about the Child Care Employee Project, please write to CCEP, P. O. Box 5603, Berkeley, CA 94705 USA.

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The Autonomous Playscape

by: Beverley Mehner Windjack

Canada

It is evident that designers must redirect their efforts to create environments which are conducive to the healthy development of young children. Environments that deny the child, that offer no chance of involvement, participation or manipulation, that are devoid of choice, complexity and interaction are of little value. While children may not respond to environmental or aesthetic quality, it is believed that colour, spatial variety, vision, sound, touch and smell influence behavior in early childhood. Furthermore, there is evidence that a large portion of perceptual ability is achieved gradually through experience and that such ability improves with practice.

The process of sensory training can be spontaneous and unorganized with relatively unproductive results. However, if one succeeds in organizing sensory training according to the theories of childhood development, the effectiveness of this training may be substantially increased. By balancing the proper amount of environmental stimulation with each stage of childhood development, a child's full potential may be reached.

Following are the specific design implications and appropriate design responses for these given environmental factors: spatial variety, colour perception, visual perception, audio perception, tactile awareness, olfactory perception, motor development, and common disabilities.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

Spatial Variety

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

From age 0 to 24 months children require and actively maintain visual and acoustical proximity with a mother figure. During this period children usually play alone.

From age 2 years to 7 years children develop social skills such as sharing, verbalization and peer interaction. During this period children prefer to play in groups and are often quite noisy.

From age 7 years to old age, group play dominates. It is usually more competitive than cooperative. Preadolescent children are the same size as adults and imitate their elders.

DESIGN RESPONSE

Play area must be directly associated (visually and acoustically) with mother figure. It should be scaled to comfortably accommodate a child playing alone.

Play areas for preschoolers should encourage and facilitate the safe, spontaneous, exploration of the near environment.

Play areas and equipment should be appropriate in size for two or more children. They should be located in easily accessible places so that children can use them unaccompanied by an adult. They should not be located in the proximity of childless households.

Provisions for preschool and school aged children should be considered separately but should not be segregated.

Manipulative materials and items which demand self initiated activity and encourage cooperative interaction are recommended.

A variety of spaces should be easily accessible from other activity areas for free, spontaneous and solitary play.

Spatial needs for preadolescent children are identical to the spatial needs of adults.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

DESIGN RESPONSE

Exploratory activity and search is motivated by novel situations where an attachment figure, usually the mother, is present. As well, novel objects encourage exploration when placed in a relatively familiar environment. In an unfamiliar environment, or when an attachment figure is not present, elements of uncertainty and diversity may be perceived as hostile rather than as novel constituents.

Before the age of 11 or 12 years, children cannot perceive the need for caution or anticipate danger. Where streets are children's only play areas there are likely to be more accidents.

Overstimulation in the environment reduces the child's capacity to concentrate, to focus, and to make decisions. Barren, unstimulating environments also cause maladaptation of attention.

Preadolescent children should be able to interact with their environment, have some freedom from adults, and have the opportunity to create and self-devise challenges.

There should be enough grass area in the play space for children to play team sports. Likewise, there should be enough hard surface area to ride bicycles, bounce balls and play hopscotch.

The child's environment should provide the opportunity for children to interact and operate comfortably, in accordance to their past environmental experience. Paced levels of stimulation are recommended.

Orderliness and consistency must be balanced with the need for novelty, complexity and excitement.

Children's play environments should be clearly designated.

Play areas should be adequately enclosed to prevent children from carelessly running out and onto the street.

Overstimulation should be avoided at decision points.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

DESIGN RESPONSE

The play environment should be designed to stimulate and advance children's skills but not put unreasonable demands on their abilities.

Variety in height and composition of the playground landscape should be encouraged. At the same time, sequence and scheduling of activities should be clear.

As far as possible, elements with set functions and meanings should be minimized and controlled ambiguity should be maximized.

Colour Perception

An infant's first visual discrimination is between colour and non colour. Children discriminate predominately by colour until the age of 7 years.

Infants appear to prefer yellow, white, pink and red until 2 years of age. Preschoolers and young school aged children show a strong preference for bright primary colours, especially red and blue. With maturity, the international colour preference is for blue and green.

Bright primary colours and high tonal contrast elicit exploratory behaviour. Neutral colours and low tonal contrast seem to evoke little response.

Colour perception is present at birth and is, therefore, a practical media for communicating with all persons who cannot read.

Environments for children may be separated into areas for specific age groups through the use of colour.

Environments specifically designed for children are well-suited to bright primary colours and high tonal contrast. Environments which are potentially dangerous to children warrant low tonal contrast and neutral colours.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

DESIGN RESPONSE

High tonal contrast provides visual cues for the partially sighted and children with visual perception problems. However, highly stimulated and hyperactive children, and subdued and depressed children are least comfortable in surrounds of high tonal contrast.

Environments for children who do not have conventional responses to colour must be treated individually whenever possible.

Visual Perception

A child's preliminary sense of perception is visual and visual perception continually improves with experience.

Due to lack of experience, subtle blends and advanced shapes are not easily discerned by children under 5 years of age. 'They may even be perceived as monotonous.' Simple bold shapes with strong contrasts are therefore recommended.

During the first 5 years of life the ability to discriminate between objects by single, physical characteristics develops. Such learning is easiest when the child receives a visual cue along with one or more audio, tactile, or olfactory cues.

It is especially important that children be able to see, hear, touch and smell a wide variety of stimuli during their first five years.

There should be a planned amount of redundancy, repetition and reoccurrence of sensory stimuli to help the young child learn basic discrimination between objects.

After the age of 6 years the child requires a more complex environment to retain his interest. The most complex behaviour results in the most complex environment.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

DESIGN RESPONSE

Audio Perception

From birth a child's hearing ability is comparable to that of an adult's. It is very efficient to a distance of twenty feet.

While audio interpretation must naturally be learned, auditory acuity does not continually improve with experience.

During their first two years of life, children require environmental opportunities within 20 feet of their mother figure.

Children under 5 years of age comprehend highly distinguishable sounds most easily. Varied audio stimuli are most important to a child during his first 5 years of life when object discrimination is developing.

Tactile Awareness

Texture is an important factor in learning to discriminate between objects. It also contributes to an object's stimulation value.

Simple, obvious, textures are helpful in the development of discrimination in children under 5 while intricate textures are stimulating to children over 5.

Olfactory Perception

Olfactory perception intensifies visual images, sounds, and other sensory experiences.

Children under 5 are attracted to, and comprehend most easily, highly distinguishable smells. As the child matures, subtle olfactory cues contribute to the environment's sensory appeal.

Motor Development

Fine motor skills are, far the most part, genetically determined. Gross motor skills are developed in accordance with perceptual abilities and continually improve with experience.

The child's environment should provide versatile opportunities for spatial experiences such as crawling through spaces, climbing up through different shapes, looking up into and down from spaces, and so on.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

Motor development relies, in part, on the perception of sensory stimulation.

Physiological makeup of children under 5 years of age does not enable them to successfully interact on very complex equipment or within the unprotected Canadian winter environment.

The most complex behaviour is elicited by the most complex equipment.

DESIGN RESPONSE

Some activities should promote risk taking and decision making activities. However, alternatives should be offered so that children can make decisions before taking the next step. The choice of options should be presented immediately at the end of each activity or cycle of activities.

Fixed equipment allows only one-way action and thus limits children's activities within a more or less rigid framework. All play environments should have sections with manipulative materials that children can move and act upon.

Simple equipment should be provided for children under 5.

Play areas for preschoolers should be sheltered and face the most comfortable orientation.

The play environment should offer opportunities for success and evoke confidence and self esteem.

Children over 5 should be provided with more complex and challenging equipment than preschoolers.

The play environment should provide for similar activities to occur at different rates (for different age groups) without interfering with each other.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

DESIGN RESPONSE

For each type of activity there should be several levels of accomplishments, e.g. climbing a ladder, climbing a cargo net, climbing a rope.

Common Disabilities

Design for disabled children is not conceptually different than design for able children. All children have a great need to establish peer relations, to create a positive self image and to gain self confidence.

To do this children must be able to establish goals which are achievable; goals which have an element of guaranteed success. Repeated failure leads to frustration and gives rise to anti-social behaviour.

Activity areas should provide opportunities for repetition, imitation, and problem solving as these promote learning and help children find order and meaning in the environment.

Adequate environmental cues should be provided for children to understand where to go, how to use equipment, and how to understand the environment in general.

Equipment should encourage mutual involvement by able bodied and disabled children.

Although in conflict with the overall need for obtaining challenge, the following requirements represent the real needs of a child temporarily backsliding or caught in a cycle of frustration:

- a) Undemanding equipment must be provided as a relief from too great a challenge.
- b) Some activities and equipment should provide easily attainable success, requiring little skill or effort.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR

DESIGN IMPLICATIONS

The majority of handicapped children in the community playground will have physical disabilities which are minimized by the use of orthopedic appliances, mobility aids, wheelchairs, crutches, walkers or prostheses.

The extra weight of an orthopedic appliance or prostheses can be very tiring to the handicapped child. As well, certain disabilities and medications cause some children to become particularly susceptible to sun stroke, heat sickness and dehydration.

DESIGN RESPONSE

Major circulation routes should provide full access to the downwardly mobile. Playscapes should be accessible by an hard surface, safe route, other than a roadway.

Access within the playground should include a system of hard, flat, non-interrupted, non-skid surfaced paths.

Where possible activity areas should be elevated to accommodate children in wheelchairs.

Steps on all equipment must be wide enough to accommodate children with limited muscle control, children in braces and children who are obese. Steps 2'-6" to 3'-0" wide are recommended.

The angle of steps on equipment should be 45 degrees or less to accommodate children with balance problems and children with limited use of their legs. Steps should be spaced no more than 6" apart.

Rest spots with shade, drinking water, and benches should be provided on the play site. Water controls should be those requiring very little pressure to operate and benches should have back and arm rests.

Childcare Services in Hong Kong

by Terry De Martini

Hong Kong

Childcare centers regulated under the Department of Welfare include day nurseries (full-day pre-school ages), residential nurseries, creches (infants), and centers for children with special needs. As of July 1982, Hong Kong had 214 registered childcare centers, serving 19,447 children between birth and six years. These centers are established either by individuals or non-profit corporations. The government operates only one demonstration center, used for training intending day care operators and teachers.

All centers are registered under the law and are inspected unannounced every three months. They must operate under a code of practice. Complaints are registered with a child care advisory inspector and then referred to a district coordinating committee, made up of directors of childcare centers and family service centers. The particular situation is discussed and resolved by the committee, if possible. If the problem is family-oriented or involves a child's development, the case is referred to a Family Service Center, where trained social workers are available.

The first priority for government assistance for day care services is the low income family, followed by a family whose mother is unable to provide maternal care, or a family with "too many" children. If space is available, those families without social reasons may enroll their children on a sliding fee basis. A single parent is considered to have a social need for childcare whether working or not.

Until September 1982, the majority of day nurseries were directly subsidized by the government. At that time, the system changed over to financial assistance to the families themselves. The amount of family income is calculated after the rent for the family home has been paid. After the family is found eligible, the fee assistance is paid directly to the day nursery that the child is attending. The maximum amount of assistance is based on the fees charged in the majority of non-profit centers.

After-school care is provided in community centers. Libraries are available and small interest group activities are supervised by workers. Most activities are recreational, such as guitar lessons. There is some tutoring and help with schoolwork in a group setting, which is popular around exam time.

There is a real commitment to training childcare workers. Full-time courses are required for intending workers, with a grant for fees available if the student is low income. In addition, many different types of in-service training courses are offered: 1) for Half-Day Child Care Centre Workers (pre-schools); 2) for Full-Day Nursery Workers (pre-school ages); 3) for Residential Child Care Workers (who work with children who are orphans, abandoned or under protection orders); 4) for Creche Workers (infant care); and 5) a Management Course for Child Care Supervisors. With sensitivity to

the fact that participants in the in-service training are working, these courses are spread out over weeks and/or months. An example is the course for Full-Day Nursery Workers. It consists of five full weeks spread out over approximately three and one-half months. The worker is paid by the center at which she works while attending classes and may not leave employment at that center during that time. In order to take these classes, the childcare worker must have at least four months childcare experience, be 18 years old or older, and be recommended by her supervisor.

In centers, minimum staffing ratios are 1 staff member for every 8 children (or part thereof) for children under the age of two, and 1 staff member for every 14 children (or part thereof) for children 2 or more years of age.

The Child Care Centres Regulations: outlines all requirements for centers, including operating procedures, program standards, training and structural requirements. Corporal punishment is prohibited. The premises of every center must be equipped with laundry, bathing and changing facilities for children and employees. There are equipment, health and medical requirements.

Penalties are imposed if certain regulations are contravened, such as those governing corporal punishment, fire regulations, safety and hygiene, structural alterations or training programs without permission, minimum staffing requirements, floor space, family records, infectious diseases and unsupervised children.

Play groups run by ex-patriates are included in the childcare center regulations.

Evening care is provided by 20 residential centers where overnight accommodations are available. These are run by the private sector with government aid for orphans and abandoned children. These strive to meet the various needs of parents. Some children are in these centers Monday through Friday and go home on weekends. In order to insure that no child stays too long, enrollment records are inspected regularly. If necessary, there is a referral to a social worker. Social workers often initiate the child's placement and monitor the child's progress. Other arrangements need to be made after a child reaches 6 years of age. If the parents have severe problems, the government becomes the child's guardian and the child goes into foster care or adoption. Usually the residential care fills a temporary need of the family.

Centers receiving government aid can apply for public funds for renovations and equipment. Their inspector gives advice and evaluates the program. Some inspectors work with the Development Branch for planning to meet childcare needs.

Mainstreaming of handicapped children into the regular day nurseries is encouraged. About 10% of a center's capacity is set aside for the disabled. There is a special subsidy from Social Welfare for an integrated childcare center which results in a better staffing ratio: 1 to 6, rather than 1 staff to 14 children.

There is high pay for the childcare workers who work with disabled children and a training course in that field is offered every year as an in-service program. There are minimal support services in the special education section,

some guidance and assessment. A clinical psychologist is available for consultation, who is consulted more by the social workers than the childcare workers. Identification of a child's problem is the greatest difficulty.

The general philosophy of the childcare service is that childcare should be available for working parents using income as criteria. The children are placed according to their developmental level, and childcare is considered supplemental to family life. Parents are encouraged to be involved. Their participation varies according to each center. Group meetings are held every one to three months, with outside speakers from the Health Department or other public agencies. Meetings with parents to discuss the center's program and the child's progress are usually scheduled when one parent can be at home with their child.

Considering the enormous numbers of families needing services, the Department of Social Welfare has a thoughtful, considered and quality approach to family and children's services. Their teacher training programs are professional and thorough. Those of us in other countries have an excellent model to follow.

Child Care in Holland: A Debate
Between Private and Public Responsibilities

by: Elizabeth M. Pot

Holland

1. Historical Backgrounds

A delayed process of industrialization and moderate social reforms at the turn of the twentieth century left unimpaired a deeply founded bourgeois Protestant belief in the nuclear family as the "cornerstone" of society. This ideology was not only strongly supported by the Church and the Christian parties but also by the socialists and the trade unions. It shaped the subsequent development of a social security system with fixed positions of men and women in marriage. The historically low labour market participation of women since the industrial revolution, especially of women with young children, added to this stance. Against this background, I should like to consider the actual state of child care provisions in Holland in the context of recent social and political developments.

2. The Playgroup Movement

The expansion of child care in Holland is largely due to the spread of playgroups all over the country in the early seventies, increasing from a number of 150 in 1965 to 2500 in 1975. The initiative was taken by mothers who were dissatisfied with the isolation and the lack of in- and outdoor space for their children.

As the quality of the provision and the developmental aspects were accentuated, the playgroup movement gradually shifted from a voluntary to a more professional approach. Small grants provided by local and central government and the character of the social security system may have facilitated this shift.

Playgroups are viewed as a child-oriented provision. The organization of playgroups provides a service to a specific age group on restricted hours (mostly not suited to working hours)¹. Owing to this, the playgroup movement could be incorporated into the traditional ideas on motherhood. As L. van Rijswijk-Clerkx has demonstrated in her unique study on childcare in Holland, this has been one of the reasons for its success.²

Presently, while one in three two and three year olds visit a playgroup, the further expansion seems to have come to an end. High fees, caused by cuts and decreasing local grants are responsible for this stagnation. Other important reasons are: the growing competition of "confessional" schools which start less expensive playgroups as a means to attract pupils, the predominantly middle-class orientation of the playgroups, and last, but not least, the changing circumstances and needs of parents with young children. The increasing labour market participation of women has especially affected these needs.³

3. Child Care in Holland: Facts and Figures

Child care provisions in Holland, private and nonprofit in origin, are usually defined as all forms of organized out-of-home and after-school care for normal,

healthy children from six weeks to twelve years old.⁴ Most centers are subsidized by local and/or central government, although non-subsidized centers, run by parents or volunteers, are increasing.

The following Tables provide a statistical summary of child care service provision and utilization across the age groups.

TABLE I

Total Number of Children 0-12 Years
Using Childcare Facilities, and Number of Centers, 1982

(Source: Central Office of Statistics, CBS, Inquiry on Child Care, 1982)

<u>Number of Children</u>		<u>Number of Centers</u>	
In playgroups/classes	127,370	Playgroups/classes	3,049
In day care centers	7,022	Day care centers	153
In after-school/ combined centers	3,111	After-school/ combined centers	119
In other forms	1,799	Other forms	19
TOTAL:	139,302	TOTAL:	3,340

As the above Table indicates, 91 percent of all children visiting group-care centers use playgroups or classes.

TABLE II

Number of Children Less Than Three Years
in Child Care Centers, 1977-1982

(Source: CBS, Inquiry on Child Care, 1977, 1980, 1982)

	<u>1977</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1982</u>
In playgroups and classes	28,172	37,794	39,862
In day care centers (full- and part-time)	2,485	2,820	3,403
In other forms	---	319	643
TOTAL:	30,657	40,933	43,918

TABLE III

Total Number of Children Age 0, 1, 2 and 3 Years
in Different Forms of Child Care, as % of Total Number
of Children in These Age Groups, 1982

(Source: CBS, 1982)

Age Groups	Total Number	In Playgroups/ Classes		In Day Care/ Other Forms	
		abs.	%	abs.	%
0 years	177,876				
1 year	181,350	324	0, 09	1,733	1, 48
2 years	176,090	39,538	22, 45	2,323	1, 3
3 years	177,359	81,530	46,	2,781	1, 57
TOTAL:	712,675	121,392	17, 03	6,837	0, 96

As Table III shows, less than 1 percent of all children under four years of age have access to centers with extended hours.

4. Group Care in Day Nurseries

The first day nurseries were founded in 1870 by higher class women, meant for children of poor working-class women. As institutional care was seen as opposite to the ideal of a mother staying home to look after her children, their expansion was minimal. In 1965 only thirty day nurseries were counted in the entire country. With changing circumstances and ideas in the late sixties and seventies, the need for more day care provisions grew rapidly. In a period of economic optimism, their number reached 150 in 1975. After that, expansion slowed down.

Most centers are situated in the western part of the country. Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht, contain 50 percent of all childcare centers.

As a rule, day nurseries are accessible each working day for at least five hours, to children from six weeks to four years old. Combined day care and after-school centers also receive children up to twelve years.⁵

The need for full- and part-time day care for babies (up to two years) and for school children is most imperative because these groups are not served by other permanent facilities.

An indication of the demand for full and part-time day care was found in a recent study made by order of an official working-group, established by the Ministry of Welfare, Public Health and Culture. This study estimated a demand for at least 30,000 children between 0 and 12 years (750 centers), three times the present supply.⁶

5. Individual Private Care and Family Day Care

Since the early eighties, the need for individual paid care at home expanded rapidly, as is demonstrated by the growing number of advertisements in the newspapers, asking for "a sweet lady" to look after little John or Mary. Most demands concern babies and infants and are easily met. Several factors influenced the growth of the private child care market: an increasing number of women entering the labour market; a high supply of unemployed women who are eager for an extra income; the shortage of subsidized care; an increased demand for flexible and part-time care (which most centers cannot offer) and a strong preference for individual care at home as a more suitable solution.

As a public organized system, family day care is practically non-existent in Holland. Most forms of organized family day care are developing on a voluntary basis. Highly differing standards and regulations, legal and financial framework and official controlling agencies are lacking. Nevertheless, private family day care is expanding almost as rapidly as individual care at home.

Informal (Private) Care

Until recently, little was known of the extent of different forms of informal care (by family, neighbours or other arrangements). The already mentioned study, based on a random sample of 394 women with 659 children of 0-12 years, revealed that informal care is probably the most frequently used form of care. In this study, 27 percent of the children used unorganized and unsubsidized arrangements.

6. Legislation on Child Care

Since 1973, the National Association on Childcare, which joins 80 percent of all organized center care, and the child care lobby are joining efforts to promote a national childcare act.

As a consequence of the official ideology on family life, the government views the socialization of young children as a parental responsibility, except in cases of neglect, social backwardness or economic necessity (one parent families).

Only reluctantly, the central government gave in to the demands of pressure groups, by accepting a marginal financial responsibility for playgroups in 1975, granting each a yearly sum of f 2500.-(+ \$800)⁷ For day nurseries a temporal regulation was enacted for existing centers. It provided standards on group size, training and payment of staff and a 100 percent⁸ allowance for salary costs to be paid to local government on certain conditions. New centers would find other financial resources. In 1980 the government started a number of experimental projects on child care, meant for children of ethnic minorities (mainly of Turkish and Moroccan origin), after-school programs and temporal employment of unemployed, untrained youth. These temporal projects include almost 25 percent of all subsidized day nurseries. There are no guarantees for continuation of the program after the experimental period of four years has expired. Last year the government announced the intention to decentralize all kinds of welfare provisions without any legal framework to municipal responsibility, among which was the regulation on day nurseries.

7. A Political Turning Point?

At this moment, we are on the brink of an important political debate on the question of state acknowledgement of responsibility for the development of a coherent child care system in Holland. In 1982, the Second Chamber almost unanimously carried a vote, urging the government to design a legal, national regulation on all forms of organized child care and to stimulate and expand the number of provisions, according to the demand of parents. After that, an official working group of four different ministries was installed to advise the government on child care policy.

The debate on child care will be held in the coming months. The outcome will be decisive for the development of child care in the near future. A positive outcome could form the first step in the direction of closing the gap between two still widely separated worlds: parenthood and work. On the other side, a negative outcome could solve some economic problems, by forcing women to give up their aspirations and stay home.

To which side the balance will turn is still unknown. Nevertheless, the public discussion on child care has made it clear that young children, as part of the population, should share some of the benefits of Dutch Society and that quality child care could form a collective investment into the next generation.

NOTES

1. In general, playgroups are meant for 2 to 2½ and 3 year olds, two to three times a week visited by the same group of children during 2½ to 3 hours. Nursery education is free; 90 percent of all four year olds and 95 percent of the five year olds visit a nursery school.
2. Van Rijksijk-Clerkx, L. 'Moeders, Kinderen en Kinderopvang' ('Mothers, Children and Child Care'), Nijmegen, 1981. This historical-sociological study deals with the changing positions of Dutch women and children and of the use and development of childcare and nursery school since the seventeenth century. The accent lies on the history of childcare since the first day nurseries were founded and on the development of childcare since the Second World War.
3. Labour market participation of married women with young children has grown enormously since 1970; in 1960 the percentage of working women with children six years of age, as part of all married women with children of that age, was negligible, while in 1979 they formed 18 percent of all married women with children six years of age. The latest facts (1983) show a still growing number of women with children in the labour market, and also a growing number of women willing to work. In absolute numbers, their share is rather low: in 1979 (the latest data split up to age of the children) give a total of 138,900 married working women with children six years of age. The exact number of single women with children working is unknown. In general, most women with young children work part-time.
4. Pregnancy leave in Holland is rather short: Six weeks before and six weeks after birth, with full salary paid.
5. In Holland, most schools still have broken times. Starting at 9:00 AM, they take a break between 12:00 and 2:00, in which lunch should be taken

at home. Since last year, a statute came into operation by which schools should offer space for children taking lunch at school. The organization and the fees of this statute are not yet regulated. School canteens are almost non-existent in Holland, except in some big cities.

6. Vijfhuizen, M., 'Kinderopvang in Nederland' ('Child Care in the Netherlands'), Buro Inter/View, Amsterdam, 1983.
7. Since 1981, this state funding has ended; playgroups are, with other welfare provisions, decentralized to local government.
8. Since 1981, this subsidy was lowered to 91.5 percent. The subsidy is not meant for housekeeping and administrative personnel.

A Day in the Life of a Zimbabwe Preschool

by: Michael Ncube and Hilda Mayo

Zimbabwe

Hlekweni Preschool, located in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe, has an enrollment of 22 children between the ages of three and six years. In a report to the International Child Resource Institute (ICRI), Michael Ncube, Director of Hlekweni, stated that preschool education is very much encouraged by the government although there is still much to be learned in implementing programs.

Preschool Leadership courses are designed to encourage women from rural areas to learn the necessary teaching and management skills to manage a preschool. While a number of women have attended these courses, the problems they encounter subsequent to their training include:

- a) The drought in the rural areas makes it very difficult for preschools to function properly.
- b) The leaders have no cash allowances as most of this service is done on a voluntary basis; there is no incentive for the leaders to continue offering the services.
- c) The children who attend the preschool sessions in rural areas are poorly fed and some aid agencies have been giving them supplementary food in the form of Nutresco Mahewu (a locally manufactured, easy-to-mix food).

In spite of these difficulties, Hlekweni Preschool maintains a balanced daily schedule of activities for its preschoolers. Hilda Mayo, a preschool teacher at the Center, provides this typical daily schedule:

Sample Schedule: Summer and Winter Schedules Vary Slightly

- 7:15 Arrival and outdoor play
- 7:45 Toilet routine and washing hands
- 8:00 Scripture
- 8:15 Physical education
- 8:30 Indoor freeplay (children have access to all indoor equipment)
- 9:20 Tidying up
- 9:50 Toilet routine and washing hands
- 10:10 Mid-morning snack and register
- 10:30 Washing up and tidying the classroom
- 10:45 Organized activities:
 1. Number
 2. Language
 3. Music
 4. Story
 5. Special Activity
- 11:00 Outdoor freeplay (children have access to all outdoor equipment)
- 11:40 Ringtime
 1. Fingerplays
 2. Sense training
 3. Memory games
 4. Color discrimination

5. Nature talks
 6. Rhymes of all types
 7. Dramatization
 8. Discussions
 9. Records
- 12:00 Lunch
1:00 Rest
3:00 Toilet routine and washing hands
3:15 Afternoon snack
3:30 Washing up and tidying of the classroom
4:00 Outdoor play and departure

The children's work includes:

- a) color recognition: matching cards with colors
- b) shape recognition: putting pictures together, putting puzzles together
- c) coordination: using scissors
- d) organization: building things together with blocks
- e) manners: how to stand in a line, how to ask for permission, quiet time, staying in one's chair, treating others kindly, using toilets, washing one's cup and spoon, respect for the teacher
- f) learning songs and games
- g) learning English words that they will need when they go to school
- h) learning to count in ways of play.

The children's play includes:

- a) freeplay with games and toys
- b) outdoor play on playground equipment
- c) songs and games -- story time.

Infants in Italy: An Evaluation of Other Than Mother Care

by: Helen Ross, Ph.D.

Italy

Provisions for child care date back to 1925 when Mussolini established the first centralized system for infants and young children. In 1971, largely as the result of the influence of many strong women's organizations throughout the country, a new law was passed to provide additional infant care, the Asili Nido* (Repetto, Note 1). Thus until January 1981 the national government did, in fact, support two very different systems of infant care based on the original care established under Mussolini or on the care provided by the Asili Nido. One of the basic differences between the two systems is the political and philosophical positions concerning the primary purpose of child care.

Government sponsored care: regionalism. There are vast regional differences between delivery of service to the family in spite of several national laws which stipulate legal rights and provide funds for delivery of service. One must understand certain aspects of Italian life and people in order to evaluate, if only superficially, a topic which is so embedded in the fabric of everyday life as in infant care. Italy, a country of contradictions, is a complex combination of Catholicism and Marxism. The major subcultures reflect the Socialist Marxist tradition on the one hand and the Christian Catholic tradition on the other (Acquaviva & Santuccio, 1976). The Italy of today is composed of 20 regions which are further divided into provinces and communes. The larger cities are further subdivided into circoscrizioni or quartiere. The population of the regions ranges from 111,029 in Valle D'Aosta to 4,984,677 in Campania. This is out of a total population of 56,828,511. The country has an area of 116,280 square miles while California in contrast, has an area of 158,693 square miles (Istituto Centrale di Statistica, 1980).

For convenience the Republic is divided into three major sections: 1) North, 2) Central and 3) South. However, the real distinction politically and culturally is between the North and Central regions and the Mezzogiorno or the South. The Mezzogiorno begins with Campania and Puglia, roughly below a line from Naples to the spur. Throughout Italy there are regional rivalries and different loyalties but the major conflict exists between the Mezzogiorno and the rest of Italy. This separation is nowhere more apparent than in provisions made for infant care.

In Italy the typical work week for the government employee is 36 hours. However, some laborers, particularly in the South work ten-hour days plus a half day Saturday. The hours of infant care provided range from 7:30 a.m. to 6:30 p.m. where care is provided for working parents, to 7:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. in areas where both parents do not work. The hours spent in government-provided care vary greatly. In Reggio nell'Emilia where only 15 percent of mothers work outside the home, the infant is typically picked up between 1 p.m. and 3 p.m. In Turin in the Nido which is operated by Fiat for their employees, the workers finish work at 3 p.m. but often do not pick up their children until 5:30 or 6:00. Government offices throughout Italy close at 1 p.m. and do not open again, but they are open on Saturdays.

Rome has over 30 percent of its work force in government offices, therefore these infant care centers provide care six days a week which is true in other areas as well. Most of the Asili Nido (infant care centers) are closed during August since all businesses and manufacturers close except for resort areas.

The influence of distinct and separate systems for the care of infants is still apparent and each area contributes its own specific quality to the administration of the Nido as well as to the philosophy behind the Nido and care of infants. The northern cities, Turin and Milan, for example, reflect the efficient industrial city and a pragmatic concern for "socialization"; the smaller towns in Emilia Romagna, the birthplace of the communist party and jokingly referred to as "Red Emilia," reflect strongly the values of an idealistic Marxism (Jucker, 1970, Earle, 1975). The nature of infant care in Rome is complicated not only by the struggle between the old (ONMI) administration and the new nido, but by the fact that this city has provided that each circoscrizione (a total of 15) shall be autonomous within the city in terms of the development of the Nido and administration. Therefore some neighborhoods are without these services and some have both ONMI and nido. Nowhere is the situation more obscure than in Naples. The government and the politics of this city are much too complex and intricate for any outsider to pretend to understand the machinations which govern it. Only in Naples, the poorest city in Italy, does one see an overabundance of caregivers and hear the complaint that there was too much help for too few infants. The continuum from Naples to Sicily is one of degree. The Sicilian is still reluctant to trust government of any type. It is a poor area and waves of emigration have left it drained of the resource of its young men. The government does not appear to the outsider as chaotic as Naples, but it is obvious that in Palermo there is no strong support of the Law which provides for building and administration of the Nido. In 1980, since the law passed in 1971 for the construction of the nido, not one new nido has opened in Palermo.

Nongovernment Sponsored Infant Care: There are many diverse programs throughout Italy that are not sponsored by the central government. Industry in the north is a major sponsor for infant and child care and in the south the Catholic Church is one such source. The majority of these provide help for the working family but a few also give shelter and training to the unwed mother as well.

Industry Supported Care: Fiat, Italy's largest automobile manufacturer opened its first child care service in 1948. Then, as today, this service is available only if the mother works for Fiat and the service is without cost to the family. Currently, Fiat has six centers in factories and several others proximate to Fiat factories. These child care facilities are all referred to as Nido Fiat.

The nido in which the interview took place was originally built by the Catholic Church as an orphanage. Fiat took it over in 1971 for use as child care. The building, which reflects standard ONMI architecture is three stories with babies on the third floor, laundry and kitchen in the basement and the older children and office on the ground floor. It houses 297 children from 6 months to 7 years (6-12 months, 13; 12-36 months, 86; and 3-7 years, 198).

The nido is open from 7 a.m. until 6 p.m., thus allowing parents extra time to shop and do housework. All the personnel are hired and paid by Fiat; Fiat receives no government subsidy for child care. The Nido personnel are allowed 20 hours per year for professional growth, and in addition Fiat employs five psychologists and one pediatric consultant per nido to work with the children and their families.

The personnel all have the appropriate education but the gentlemen in charge of all Fiat child care (which includes 1,450 children), received his degree in restaurant management and came from Fiat personnel management to take charge of child care. The coordinator of this nido expressed that the signor had a lot to learn about children but that he was willing and eager. The reasoning behind his placement was that since child care is responsible for feeding this number of children three times a day, his skills in restaurant management should well suit him for the task (Interview Director Nido Fiat, Note 2).

Olivetti, a business machine company located in Turin was the originator of infant programs other than child care. This program is of more recent origin than Fiat. Olivetti's espoused purpose was to promote better human relations and in this effort they proposed not just care, but caring. In order to develop this system, Olivetti invested in planning meetings with internationally known consultants. Much of their work has been incorporated by the nido as it developed in the regions of Piedmont and Emilia Romagna.

One of the finest infant care programs in Italy is supported by Banque d'Italia in Rome. This is housed in a vast apartment located in a reconstructed Roman palace off a major street, the Via Nazionale. The rooms are small and intimate and there is a continuity of space. The babies are at the end of a hall in a cul-de-sac. The floor is carpeted and the colors are muted shades of yellow, orange and green. The room for babies is a floor room. All the furniture, tables, toys, pillows, mirrors and shelves can be reached by crawling babies. The space is used imaginatively and the babies have many nooks and crannies. On one side is the room where the infants sleep in wicker baskets on the floor. These baskets are placed on the floor so when the baby wakes there is no fear he will inadvertently fall out of bed. For the wicker basket there is a frame with four legs on wheels. If the baby is cranky or restless, his basket is placed in this frame and he is gently rocked until he falls asleep.

There are 42 infants in the nido, 15 are between the ages of 7-15 months. These babies are allowed to sleep and eat on demand with the exception that if the baby does indicate he is ready to be fed he must consume the prescribed amount. The room is self contained with its own small kitchen and each meal is prepared fresh in the kitchen.

Industrial supported child care is not thriving throughout most of the industrial parts of the country. The following is a translation of a reply from a young Italian in charge of the nido and scuola materna of the Ducati Elettrotecnica (an electronics industry) in Bologna. These facilities are open only to children of the female personnel. The company employs about 1,700 people of which 80 percent are women. These schools were created to give these women

a facility for their children inside the factory. Until 1976 there were 150 children enrolled, now there are only 60. The reasons for the decline are numerous: 1) no new personnel have been hired for about three years; 2) many workers have been placed on a temporary layoff; 3) there has been a sharp decline in the birth rate and finally, 4) the company has developed a policy, in agreement with the city, to eliminate the facility. (According to this reporter these closures are politically motivated.) This is the only company-sponsored infant care in Emilia Romagna. This facility serves infants from three months to four years and it is open from 7:30 a.m. until 5 p.m. There is a 20-person staff (cooks, cleaners, teachers, etc.) to care for these 60 babies. It is expected to close soon and she is looking for a job elsewhere in the company (Note 3).

Private Care: Another type of care for mothers and child which is provided through a private source is the Villaggio della Madre e del Fanciullo (Village of the mother and child). This is a voluntary organization started in 1945 in Milan by Elda Scarzella who is still chairman and director of this school. Her work as a social worker convinced her that the troubles of the adolescent were caused by the separation of the child and mother during infancy. Her approach to the amelioration of this problem was to establish a school for unwed mothers and their infants. The girl enters the school when she is pregnant and remains until the child is a year or later if suitable arrangements have not been made for the mother and child. This school has its own nido where the mothers place their infants while they learn a trade, go to school or look for work. This school is subcontracted from the city, but these funds are not sufficient for the extensive care given these mothers and their babies and it is largely sustained by private donations.

The school covers several well-landscaped acres. There is the main house for meetings, office, etc. and several cottages where the girls live with their infants. A large part of their food is grown in their own garden. There is an extensive sewing and weaving shop and their work is shown and sold throughout the country, and until recently, they had their own delivery suite so that the mother and infant were together from the moment of birth. This complex of buildings has expanded since the original school developed in 1945 and was designed by Ms. Scarzella's son, a well known architect in Milan. The school is well known throughout Italy and has been the source for training puericultrici, social workers, obstetricians, pediatricians, and psychiatrists.

South of Rome many child care facilities are operated by the Catholic Church and there are private for-profit care centers. Data on private facilities is difficult to obtain. One private nido in Naples, Nido Sorriso, is located in the residential district and is housed in two apartments. The older children occupy one apartment and the babies another. This nido receives funds from the province and is regulated by them. There are nine infants under 18 months. These babies bring their own lunch from home and the nido provides the pasta.

The private nidi in Palermo is similar to the nido in Naples. They are located in apartment houses which have been organized to meet the demands of young

children. In Palermo, as in Naples, these are located in middle class neighborhoods and outdoor playspace is extremely limited. These nido are small and have spaces for 45 children under three. The fee is 70,000 lire per month (\$75) with one meal included. The director of one private nido was extremely guarded and would not let us past the reception room even after she was shown many official credentials from the Italian government. The others were open and friendly. These private nidi are inordinately cramped on space and the babies have very few toys.

SUMMARY

Despite the many differences between Italians, there is one common value; this thread which binds the Italian to his house, the casa and his family. Children are worshipped. This is true in defiance of region or social class; from peasant to wealthy industrialist, from the Austrian Italian of Bolzano to the Sicilian of Syracuse, the Italian's first loyalty is to his casa and his famiglia.

In Italy, as in this country, the 1960's was a period of social upheaval. There were student riots in the universities, the women's organizations began to foment cohesive demands for equal pay and child care. These causes were heavily supported and sustained by the PCI (the Communist Party). Two important pieces of legislation, the Family Lay, 1975 and the Asilo Nido, 1971, impinge on the Italian family. And more recently the Italian family insofar as the traditional sex role is under attack. (Tedesco, 1976). It is still uncommon for the male to be intimately involved in child care. In Lazio, however, pending legislation provides that the father may receive sick pay should he remain at home with a sick child.

The Asilo Nido legislation was a clear indication that the infant care which was provided by the ONMI was not satisfactory for large numbers of Italians. The ONMI which was built on the sanitary-medical model provided little other than custodial care and the Italian women who were disenfranchised until 1945 demanded more than that for their offspring. Unfortunately, the passage of laws does not insure adequate consistent programming for infants. And there still exist vast differences in infant care. Many of these discrepancies are a function of a difference in philosophy and culture as well as resistance to change. The transition from ONMI to Asili Nido is established in the Northern regions. Currently these areas now deal with specifics of the delivery of care. To the outsider it appears that the Southern regions cling to the ONMI structure and eschew the construction of the Nido. Further, the Southern regions appear either by exclusion or choice to be noticeably absent from the national meetings which are devoted to the many unsettled issues which concern the Nido.

As one would suspect in a country as diverse as Italy, the institution of the Asili Nido has its critics and others whose apparent response is ambivalent. In February, the Italian Association on Child Abuse was addressed by C.A. Moro, a leading judge in Italy. He opened the conference with the suggestion that among many abuses for the young child perhaps the Nido, which separated mother from child, was an abusive institution. However, he concluded the conference

with the statement to the effect that it may prove to be more abusive to infants for their parents and the mother not to have a choice in child care (Moro, Note 4).

Saltz (1976) summarized her view of the Italian Infant care: ... a review of this recent Italian progress in both quality of childcare services is very encouraging. It can serve as an example for what we might accomplish if we, as child development professionals, emulated our Italian colleagues in giving the same kind of serious purpose, determined effort and sense of commitment of secure the rights of young children to the kind and quality childcare which can further all aspects of their development (p.10).

Now, some years later, we can see a system which is still fraught with inconsistencies and controversy. Consequently, we do not suggest that we emulate our Italian colleagues but rather learn from their experience.

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When a Parent Goes to Prison:
Searching for an International Perspective

by: Louise Rosenkrantz, M.Ed.

United States

In early January the staff at Prison MATCH (Mothers and Their Children) received a call from ABC News about a Nightline program on prison nurseries. In the United States there is now one correctional institution, the Bedford Hills Correctional Facility in New York, where babies born during a mother's imprisonment are able to remain with their mother for up to one year. Virginia and Florida have had similar programs in the past, and the Federal Bureau of Prisons sponsors a community treatment program where pregnant inmates of approved custody levels can give birth and continue parenting for up to three months in a community-run center. Most babies born to inmate mothers in the United States, however, are separated from their mother within days of their birth. When asked why this happens the usual answer is "prisons are not places for babies."

This situation was to be the controversy of the television program, and throughout the program's preparation our staff served as a resource bank providing information about prison parenting programs throughout the United States. We are in a good position to provide such background information. Since our beginning in 1978, Prison MATCH has been involved in gathering information about program models for inmate mothers and their children. At the same time we were designing the Children's Center visiting program which we operate at the Federal Correctional Institution in Pleasanton, California, our staff assisted in designing and implementing the Federal Shared Beginnings program for pregnant inmates. In 1982 Prison MATCH, through a grant from the National Institute of Corrections, was able to survey community agencies and departments of corrections in all fifty states requesting information on existing parenting programs. Then in 1983 and 1984, again through NIC and additional foundation grants, our staff has been able to give technical assistance to developing programs in seven other jails and prisons throughout the United States. Throughout our six year history our staff has visited jails and prisons in California, Massachusetts, Texas, Missouri, Iowa, New York, New Mexico, Georgia, Illinois and Nevada. We were able to link the ABC News producers up with Dr. Susan Hunter, superintendent of the Iowa Women's Reformatory - a strong advocate for inmate parenting program. We also told them of the MOLD program in New Mexico where children visit their inmate mothers for week-long overnight stays. What we were unable to do effectively, though, was to present a global view - and it is that view which is needed to round out the picture.

In our ethnocentrism we failed to ask the real question: Does the treatment of babies born to inmates in the United States reflect the generally unsupportive attitude of this country's government towards children? Is there a different response to this problem when looked at from an international perspective? Our failure to address this issue from a global viewpoint stems, I believe, from two interrelated problems:

1. A lack of knowledge about what does really happen in other countries, which
2. leads to lack of perspective about what kinds of programs are possible if one really stretches the mind and focuses on children's needs.

The question as it is generally posed in the United States, "Is prison a good place for babies?" could be reworded to say: "Is it good to separate a baby from a mother who is physically able and emotionally interested in caring for that child?" Surely most of us would say no to both of these questions. The problems of separating parents and babies is also compounded when coupled with the fact that most prison mothers in the United States do return to their families and resume their parental role. This question of separation versus prison nursery finally reveals itself to be one of the priorities. Do we think that it is more important to keep babies out of prisons or to keep mothers and babies together? Surely this is not a peculiarly American dilemma.

The purpose of this article is to issue a call for help. I feel that programs in the United States have been singularly unsuccessful in meeting the needs of babies with parents in prison and decidedly unimaginative in planning alternatives. Through newspaper articles I have read of a family program in West Germany, a school program in Colombia and of children freely visiting imprisoned parents in Mexico. But what is the role of early childhood educators in these programs? What is the parenting philosophy which these programs are based on? We in the United States need to become better informed about international models - to hear a more complete debate about the issues.

This paper is like a call in the forest. This journal is one of the few international resources from which we can hope to find a response. What does happen in France, Israel, the Soviet Union, England, Yugoslavia, Kenya, Nicaragua, etc. when a parent of a young child goes to prison? I hope that some of my early childhood colleagues will answer my call so that those of us developing prison parenting programs in the United States can have our horizons broadened and stretched. Hopefully then the next time Prison MATCH is asked to be an information bank we can respond from a global perspective. Also, with such information, as early childhood educators in the United States work to design and implement programs for children with parents in prison we can draw on international child development theory and practice. Our staff believes quality programs can be developed only through such shared understanding.

We at Prison MATCH will be looking forward to a mailbox bulging with international mail this summer. In the fall, we will prepare a report for this journal on the material we receive. Such an international exchange of program information should benefit all of us as we plan and implement programs for children with parents in prison. We look forward to hearing from you.

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UNITED STATES

Day Care Centres in Kenya:
An Overview of Objectives, Types and Current Needs
By: Asenath J. Sigot
Kenya

Education in Kenya starts officially at the age of six years when the child is expected to enter standard one of eight years of primary education. Before the age of six, there are several types of institutions that admit children from the age of three months to eight years. These institutions are variously known as nursery centres, pre-primary units, kindergartens, pre-schools or simply day-care centres.

Kenya recognizes day-care centres as an important integral part of a community environment that helps children grow and learn, and as a community service and resource that ensures the free participation of mothers in the life and work of the community and in national development. There are over 5,000 day-care centres which cater for over 300,000 children with approximately 6,000 teachers (1). The daily activities in the centres remain within the control of the individual teacher or the individual managing committee.

The basic objectives of the variety of services offered in the centres are as follows (2):

- (1) to help the child to develop physically, mentally and socially.
- (2) to extend and supplement the nurture of the home, rather than to be a substitute for it.
- (3) to provide pre-school children with adequate supervision and protection when their parents are required to be away from home for regular periods of time.
- (4) to provide parents with a community resource that ensures them of improved conditions of life for their posterity.
- (5) to transmit through pre-school experience the cultural heritage of the peoples of Kenya.

Types of Day-Care Centres

In Kenya, day-care centres are institutions of exceedingly diverse characteristics due to the fact that there is no specific government policy concerning their overall structure. Varying philosophies, personnel and financial resources govern the centres. There are seven major types of centres according to their establishment, management and in some, the kind of parents and children using it.

1. Self-Help Day-Care Centres: Many day-care centres especially in the rural areas fall in this category. These centres have been started through local self-help projects where parents in a community join their efforts to establish and manage the centre (3).
2. Welfare Organization Day-Care Centres: These centres are established and managed by either a religious group, non-governmental organization or a voluntary welfare organization.
3. Privately Owned Day-Care Centres: In most urban and municipal areas, day-care centres are established and managed by private individuals.
4. County and City Council Day-Care Centres: In all urban centres and local county councils the authorities establish and operate day-care centres as part of their own educational programmes (4).

5. Employer Supported Day-Care Centres: In a limited number of urban areas a group of parents who work for the same employer may have a day-care centre as a fringe benefit. The employing organization provides financial support and direction.
6. Foreign Language Day-Care Centres: These are a few day-care centres especially in the city of Nairobi which cater for various foreign nationals speaking languages other than English.
7. Day-Care Centres for the Handicapped: There are a few day-care centres especially designed for speech delayed, learning disabled, physically or mentally handicapped children. The centres offer a specialized programme for each child depending on his disability.

Current Needs

The activities that children do affect their growth, development, ability to learn and general behaviour. Currently, there is a great concern about meeting the needs of young children in Kenya. Some of these needs include:

1. the need for guidelines on how day-care institutions can provide the environment and the opportunities which will maximize the physical, mental, emotional and social development of young children.
2. the need for the development of facilities such as play equipment and curriculum that is structured within the range of familiarity bearing in mind the type of personality the programme wishes to develop.
3. the need for the development of day-care centres to serve as laboratories for the child-care and child development courses where observations and studies may be made on children's behaviour.
4. the need for studies and research on the home environment versus day-care centre environment and their effect on development of the child.
5. the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology need to formulate policies, procedures and a standard definition for the establishment, organization and management of day-care centres.

Kenya maintains a firm belief that children are the future of the nation and that day-care education contributes to nation building. In order for this belief to be realized, the needs listed above should be catered for and greater efforts be made to date and improve the structure and quality of Kenyan day-care centres.

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Design Principles for Childcare Centers

from a Psychological Perspective

By: Rachel Sebba & Arza Churchman

Israel

A childcare center is an educational-childminding institution, which provides a service to the community, the family and the child; it allows mothers to go out to work, facilitates the functioning of families in distress and the reduction of social gaps, and foster the development of the young. Children from the ages of 6 months to 3-4 years of age may spend up to 8 or 9 hours a day in the center.

Childcare centers in Israel are operated mainly by voluntary women's organizations, while the Ministries of Labor and Social Welfare, of Education and of Health are involved in their support and supervision. The accumulated experience of these organizations in operating such centers, and the desire to provide improved environmental conditions on an equal basis to all children attending these centers has led to the formulation of a required program for such centers.

The main points of the design programs are as follows:

The children are divided up into 3 separate age groups--(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ years; (b) $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years; (c) 2 to 3 years. Each group is allocated a space of its own (of both the indoor and outdoor spaces) with the equipment in the space (mainly furniture and sanitary equipment) adapted to the needs and size of each age group.

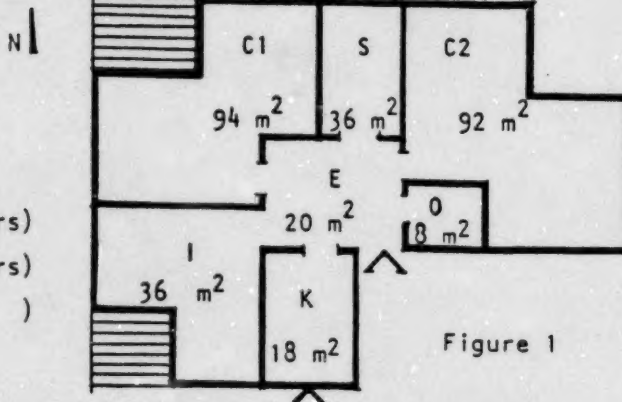
Each of these age-specific spaces operates as a separate unit which includes activity areas (for play, sleep, eating), bathroom, storage and outdoor area. Each unit is supplied from a common kitchen and is under joint administrative supervision. Each unit also shares with the others an emergency shelter. (A shelter is required in all Israeli housing and educational buildings, for use in case of war or other emergency.)

The design program recommends that the built area be 25% of the lot, leaving 75% as open space. It also recommends that the youngest age-group's unit face the south so as to catch the winter's sun.

The desire to adapt the scale to that of the children is expressed in the recommendations to design the rooms with many corners, with a maximum height of 2.6 meters; to place the windows at 60 cm. height so that the children can look outside; and to adapt the height of the sanitary equipment and the furniture to the children's size.

The sizes of the recommended spaces and their organization is presented in the following drawing which is an integral part of the design program. (Figure 1.)

O = Office
 E = Entrance
 K = Kitchen
 S = Shelter
 I = Infants (1/2 - 1 1/2 years)
 C1 = Children (1 1/2 - 2 years)
 C2 = Children (2 - 3 years)



In addition to the above topics the program also sets guidelines relating to ventilation, lighting, electricity, size of doors and windows, kitchen equipment etc.

The existing design program is based mainly on the functional and organizational aspects of the childcare center. Recently there has been growing recognition of the need to enrich the design program with principles based upon the accumulated knowledge about the nature of the developmental process, and about the relationship between psychological aspects and the physical environment and its design (1). An analysis of the ability and needs of children of different ages leads to design principles and points to ways of applying them.

Basic assumptions as to the relationship between the development of children and characteristics of the physical environment.

(1) The physical environment is a major source of the stimuli which are perceived by the senses. These stimuli vary in type, strength and number and may influence the sensory, motor and cognitive development of the child.

(2) The physical environment provides a setting for social interactions and may facilitate or hinder the activity of different sizes or kinds of groups. The structure of the environment may influence the distance between individuals, their ability to set aside a space for themselves, their chance for privacy, the kind of social communication possible, etc.

The socio-spatial pattern has implications for the development of the children's relationship with their peers and with the adult care-takers; for their development as individuals and for their opportunity for being exposed to stimuli directed at fostering their development.

(3) The physical environment may affect the willingness or the ability of the child to move about in it and to explore it. This has implications for the child's cognitive and emotional development and for the development of a sense of autonomy and independence.

(4) Through their activities at this age children begin to learn the rules which apply to the built environment and the norms of their society. Each of the children's actions in the center (including physiological ones) may improve their sensory-motor coordination, their understanding of their world and their place in society. For the child of this age the physical environment is the background for the activity, a prerequisite for this activity, and also a subject of study in its own right.

The Basic Approach

The child is the central factor in the design of the childcare center. This child is intended over the years to develop as an individual with his/her own way of thinking, with the ability and courage of self expression and the responsibility for his/her own actions.

The development of the child in this direction depends on the creation of conditions which will allow and facilitate the opportunity for:

- experiencing stimuli adapted to the level of his/her development.
- expressing his/her inclinations and maintaining his/her own pace.
- choosing the activities and stimuli interesting to him/her.
- acting on the environment and experiencing the results of these actions.

The experiences of children at this age are important for their future development in all areas and therefore are significant as a base for the future. However, they also have value in the present, and this requires that the child be able to enjoy his/her childhood.

Design Principles

Children at these ages are highly dependent on their tactile and kinesthetic senses. They should therefore be able to touch most of the objects in the environment and to reach (by crawling or walking) most of the places that they can see in the center and its yard.

The children's motor behavior allows them to verify what they see, to measure distances, to react to stimuli, to make changes in the environment and to strengthen their self confidence.

The design of the center, then, should support the children's attempts to move about it and should encourage and reward them for doing so.

This can be done by creating movement paths whose spatial complexity increases with the age of the children. The ends of these paths would be play or observation spaces which would attract the children to them and would reward them for making the effort by the interest to be found in them. The paths for the infants would be short and straight and covered with carpeting for comfort and safety. For the toddlers the paths would be longer and more complex and would include spatial variation requiring movements such as going up or down, crawling under or around, etc.

The middle age group (1½ to 2 years) should be given the opportunity of going up and down on incline and of moving objects on this incline. For the older age group (2-3 years) one can create play spaces on 2 levels (with a difference of about 80 centimeters between them). The lower level would allow the children to hid, to crowd together and to feel the measurements of the space with their hands. The upper level allows observation from above, rolling objects, etc.

In order to facilitate their understanding of the environment, the children should encounter many and varied materials that communicate coordinated stimuli (material that looks like wood should feel, smell and sound like wood, a doll that looks like a bear should not be made of smooth rubber or sound like a bird when it's squeezed).

The furniture that is meant for the children should require operations which allow the children to experience movements; shelves at different heights, drawers of different kinds and doors with different closings. The operation of the furniture will require varied movements (push, pull, raise) whose complexity will increase with the age of the children. The children should be able to take out toys and return them to their place by themselves.

An additional aspect is the responsiveness of the environment to the actions of the children. When the child is in the company of many other children, he/she does not necessarily receive a response to his/her action. His voice is lost in the general noise level, her accomplishments are not noticed by the adult. In these circumstances it is desirable to design things which will allow the child to get a response from the physical environment--for example mobiles, hanging balls, inclined surfaces, pulleys, etc.

The children's interaction with sensory stimuli contributes to their cognitive development but also gives them pleasure, and this in turn has implications for their self confidence, trust in the environment and openness and readiness to try new things. Design which takes this into account will consider the children's tendency to touch everything, their love and swinging and the acceleration of sliding, their curiosity as to all aspects of the environment. In addition, consideration must be given to the different sensory preferences of different children (e.g., by designing places of varied character), and to their different pace for eating and sleeping (e.g. by providing places where one can rest or eat even at times not scheduled for this).

In the center many stimuli are created by the presence of many children. A distinction should be made between the social stimuli and the physical stimuli created by these numbers. In both cases the design should emphasize those stimuli which will contribute to the development of the children and attempt to neutralize those which may accustom them to higher response thresholds.

The lessening of social stimuli can be accomplished by creating multi-functional play corners each with a different character (different lighting, size, height or materials; different degrees of privacy). These corners can help to prevent overconcentration in the center of the room by attracting the children to different activities and areas with different atmospheres.

The lessening of physical stimuli can be aided by sound-absorbing materials which lower the noise level in the room and by the use of non-saturated colors. In planning the colors of the rooms, one should consider the colors of the children's clothing and toys and see that the focus of the children's attention is on the occurrences in the center and not on the static aspects of the building.

It is important through the design:

- to create conditions which will encourage cooperation among the older age group (complex games, a swing for two, large blocks, a telephone, an incline, etc.).
- to create conditions which allow the children to see themselves in a mirror; to hear their own voice.
- to allow the younger children to observe the play of the older children.
- to place the work and rest areas of the care-takers in central areas so that the adults and the children can see and interest each other.
- to have a sound system which allows the playing of music for all the ages or of a story for the older group.
- to make the center an environment rich spatially and in terms of the materials in it, which allows choice and which is interesting to explore.
- to pay attention to the social and sensory stimuli in all parts of the center, on the assumption that all the activities in which the children engage contribute to their development.
- to locate windows so that they look out on interesting places.

The following plan is based upon the programmatic requirements of the Israel Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare and in the spirit of the principles presented above.

- Each room in the center has corners that are different spatially and qualitatively.
- In 2 of the 3 rooms there are changes in the height of the floor. In all of the rooms at least part of the floor is covered with carpeting.
- The ceiling height changes. The light which enters through the ceiling creates interesting plays of light. At the height of 2m 10cm (a height comfortable for the adult care-taker) one can put up a system of boards or pipes for hanging mobiles, balls, swings, etc.
- Most of the windows face south so as to be appropriate for the Israel climate. The lower windows are meant for children to look out; the upper windows for light.
- The relative locations of the rooms insures thermal insulation for the infants' room and allows the younger children to observe the outdoor play of the older children.
- The transition from the rooms to the outside is gradual.
- The shelter (required by Israeli Law) is used as a dining room for the 2 older age groups.

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- (1). Limitations of space prevent the inclusion of the bibliography relevant to this topic.

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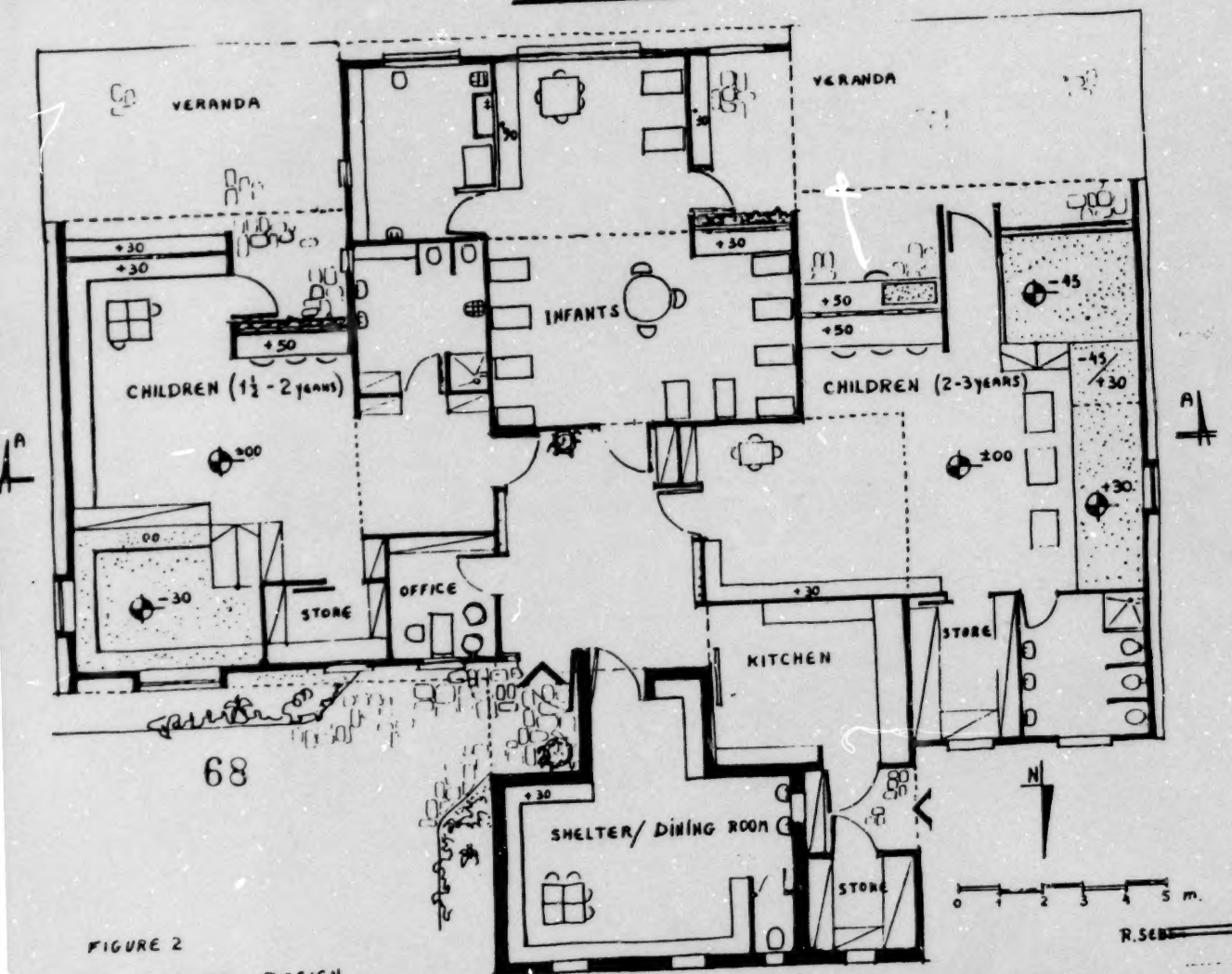


FIGURE 2

A CONCEPTUAL DESIGN

Child Care - People's Republic of China

By: Jean Miner

China

What a monumental task it is to meet the needs of 300 million children! That is the challenge facing the People's Republic of China today.

Add to these numbers the tremendous size of the nation, the economical, sociological, and geographical diversity, and the fact that the population is composed of 55 major ethnic groups or "nationalities," and the prospects for success might seem dismal indeed. But, far from being defeated by the magnitude of the undertaking, a very concerted, sustained effort is being made to address the need of children, including child care.

At the invitation of the All China Women's Federation, a California Child Development Educators Delegation, under the auspices of the California State Department of Education, spent three weeks in China visiting child care facilities and participating in information exchange seminars in Beijing (Peking), Wuhan, Chongqing, and Shanghai. Outstanding educators and members of national associations which support children's services shared with delegates the prevailing philosophy, governmental structure, progress and ongoing challenges in the area of children's services.

"In China, children are regarded as successors to the tasks of revolution and national reconstruction." As such, they are the recipients of much national attention and concern.

The All China Women's Federation and the Chinese People's National Committee for the Defense of Children are national mass organizations which play a coordinated role. They create awareness of needs, put forth suggestions and propose action programs, provide the impetus for the formulation of policies and the adoption of laws, and motivate government departments to implement them.

Work for children is directed by different government departments. The Ministry of Civil Affairs is in charge of relief and welfare work for children, including services for the handicapped. The Ministry of Light Industry is in charge of the supply of food and toys for children. The Department of Children's Art in the Ministry of Culture is responsible for development of children's reading materials, plays, films, and television programs. The Bureau of Maternity and Child Care under the Ministry of Public Health is in charge of maternal, infant and child health care, as well as child care services for children under the age of three. The Department of Primary Education in the Ministry of Education is responsible for preschool education for children three years old and over as well as primary education.

In China, child care and development facilities for children up to age three are referred to as "nurseries." Those for children from age three to age six are referred to as "kindergartens."

The Preschool Education Section of the Department of Primary Education formulates the principles, policies, regulations, and systems pertaining to preschool education, i.e., it sets nutritional standards, determines educational objectives, staff requirements and responsibilities, and establishes regulations regarding facilities. This section supervises implementation of regulations, facilitates communication and dissemination of information, and provides professional guidance to kindergartens.

There are various types of kindergartens in China, e.g., full-time, part-time, boarding, and seasonal. They are operated and funded by various sources.

Statistical data from the Ministry of Education (1982) indicates a substantial increase in child development services in recent years.

	<u># of Kindergartens</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>
--Kindergartens run by the educational departments with state funds	6,298	1,511,400
--Kindergartens run by other departments or enterprises, e.g., factories, mines, or governmental agencies, with their public welfare fund	25,199	2,182,000
--Kindergartens run by communities, communes or brigades with input from the local populace	90,610	7,437,500
TOTAL:	122,107	11,130,900

<u>Location of Kindergartens</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>	<u># of Teachers</u>
-- Urban area	2,314,200	107,700
-- Counties and towns	1,261,200	61,600
-- Rural areas	7,555,500	245,900
TOTAL:	11,130,900	415,200

<u>Increase in Services</u>	<u>1979</u>	<u>1982</u>	<u>Increase</u>
Total number of kindergarten teachers	294,500	415,200	40.98%
Total child enrollment	8,792,300	11,130,900	26.59%

Taking the nation as a whole, about a quarter of preschool age children are now receiving care and early childhood education in nurseries and kindergartens. The majority are still spending their preschool years in the home, cared for by family members.

The kindergartens visited by the delegation were in large cities. They had superior facilities, experienced staff and serve as program models. Chinese hosts noted that there is continuous effort to improve child care facilities and programs and to provide more and better training for staff. Emulation of the model programs is a major goal.

Preschool child care in China serves a dual purpose. It relieves parents from parenting responsibilities so that they can devote their time and attention to their work, while at the same time providing early childhood education for the children.

Kindergartens in China adhere to the principle of integrating education with child care.

Nurseries and kindergartens are directed to pay particular attention to children's nutritional needs, hygiene, health and physical training, and to help them form good habits, to teach them moral principles, and to arouse their interest in learning.

The aim is to launch a new generation with good health, good educational background, high ideals and moral standards, a determination to serve the people and contribute to the modernization of the People's Republic of China.

An Experience of Normal Infant and Young Children Screening in France

by: Claire Vesin, M.D.

France

The Child Health Screening System described in this paper was started in 1970 in the Paris area. It was sponsored by the Social Security and directed by Dr. Hazeman¹, Physician-in-Chief in the Social Security M.C.H. Department. Three centers were created (1,2). In July 1983, over 121,000 infants and children had been screened in these three centers.

The Child Health Screening System is aimed at providing a comprehensive approach to childcare. Its purpose is the detection as early as possible of disorders in supposedly healthy children affecting physical, motor, sensorial and mental development, and to enable children to enter school at the age of four years without handicaps. In principle, the Child Health Screening System is aimed at screening and identifying high-risk children. However, the screening is open to all children.

Somewhat different screening systems, although all based on a preventive approach, have been developed in Europe, first in Sweden (4), then in the German Federal Republic (5), Czechoslovakia (6), and Switzerland (7). In Sweden, the interest of an early detection of disorders was best demonstrated by the studies of Kohler and Stigmar (3). These authors studied children at the age of seven years who had been screened in Sweden for ophthalmological disorders at the age of four years. They compared them with a control unscreened group. They noted that strabismus risk was six times greater and that of amblyopia ten times greater in those children who had not been screened at four years.

In the German Federal Republic and Czechoslovakia, the preventive screening is not as comprehensive. In Switzerland, the screening is performed by small groups of private pediatricians rather than by government institutions. In comparison to these other preventive screening methods, the French system is more comprehensive with regard to age, longitudinal approach and number of examinations performed.

Protocol

The screening check-ups are carried out freely at the age of ten months, two years, and four years. Inasmuch as possible, it is attempted to check each child three times, permitting a longitudinal study.

All families in the geographical area covered by the Centre are sent an invitation. Families may also directly request a check-up. The check-up is comprised of a series of investigations:

1. Laboratory examinations: Blood sampling: 2 ml of blood are collected through a finger tip prick, as micro-methods will be used. Blood examinations are completed by urinalysis.

The interest of these examinations at the check-up start is to communicate possible anomalies, even before the end of the check-up.

The following determinations are carried out: blood count with differential count; hemoglobin electrophoresis, as some children belong to ethnic groups exposed to hemoglobinopathies; biochemical measurements in fasting children, of blood glucose: uric acid, creatinine, urea, cholesterol, triglycerides; when the latter results are abnormal, a lipidogram will be performed.

In the urine, glucose, proteins, nitrites, and leukocytesterase are looked for with labsticks; if necessary, the urine sediment will be studied and, in case of pyuria, pathogens will be researched.

2. A chest X-ray film is taken in all two year old infants and in four year old children seen for the first time. Other X-ray films (wrist, pelvis, etc.) are taken if necessary during the check-up.
3. The child's history is taken by a child care nurse or medical student. Data is collected on diet, life conditions, medical, personal and familial past history.
4. A specialized psychologist interview assesses the psychosocial environment and the mother-child relationship. The IQ will be assessed by the Brunet-Lezine test.
5. The E.N.T. specialist, following a clinical examination, investigates in an audiometric room the child's hearing with age-adjusted techniques (peep show; conditioned ocular reflex).
6. The ophtahlmologist assesses with an age-adjusted technique (S. Weiss-Rossano optotypes at two years; Sheridan-Inserm Stycar test at four yeras) the visual acuity-color vision, eye ground and skiascopy following mild mydriatic application.
7. A somatological examination is routinely performed only on four year old children.
8. Finally, the child is examined by the pediatrician. At his/her request, other investigations may be carried out, either in the center or in hospitals.

All data collected is recorded by the specialists in a coded form. At the end of the check-up, 800 items have been filled and coded.

The pediatrician examining the child is in charge of the check-up evaluation. Within the next 15 days, this evaluation is sent (following supervision by the center physician-in-charge) to the doctor(s) designated by the parents and the family. If a severe disorder is detected during the check-up, the family doctor will be immediately called. When necessary, the Center Social Worker will follow up with the child and family.

All data collected during the check-up are kept private and communicated to others only with the family's written authorization.

Population

Some peculiarities of the population seen at the Center should be indicated:

- a) It is not a completely randomized population. The families are sent invitations but participation is voluntary, partly depending on the parent's educational level and from the family's views of preventive action.
- b) With regard to the distribution according to economic status, recruitment varies according to the location of the Center.

The Clichy Center covers a section of the industrial area, North of Paris, mixed with more residential areas. The population of children seen at the Center comprises:

- a) Sixty percent with a French father and mother (including French West Indies families); eleven percent with one French parent and one foreign parent; sixteen percent with migrant parents from North Africa; thirteen percent with foreign parents from many other countries.
- b) Twenty percent belong to upper middle class families; 38 percent to middle class families; 38 percent to working class families; 4 percent to unclassified groups.

The results described further on cannot be considered as statistically representative of the overall French population because of the biases reported above: non-randomized selection of children; high birth rate of migrant families.

Analysis of Results

In order to establish health standard screening and to ascertain the reliability of the methods used, data was obtained from the screenings and statistically analyzed. The children were divided according to anomalies into four groups:

1. No anomalies: One-half children at ten months; 2/3 at two years; 1/9 at four years.
2. Already known anomalies confirmed by the check up.
3. Major anomalies detected by the check up: these are pathological disorders requiring rapid care.
4. Minor anomalies requiring further supervision. The limits between major and the latter ones are sometimes difficult to delineate.

Table I (see the next page) deserves some comments:

At ten months, 52 percent of the infants had one or several major or minor anomalies. It should be stressed, with regard to the major anomalies, that they had been recognized before the check up in only 15 percent of the cases. This figure is of special interest as, on the whole, these children were well taken care of (diet, immunization). This is due to the routine practice of specialized examinations (lab, ENT, Ophthalmological investigations within the framework of the check-up).

TABLE I

MAJOR AND MINOR ANOMALIES DETECTED :
OVERALL RESULTS OF 3,520 CHECK UPS

AGE	10 MONTHS	TWO YEARS	FOUR YEARS
Total Number of Children	1233	1249	1038
Normal Children	588 (48%)	431 (29 %)	130 (8 %)
Children with anomalies	665 (52%)	818 (71%)	908 (92 %)
Major anomalies detected	125	133	126
already known	23	43	57
Minor anomalies detected	885	910	1584
Already known	48	72	75
All anomalies	1681	1158	3042

At two years, 71 percent of infants had one or several major or minor anomalies. Twenty-four percent of the major anomalies had been recognized before, some at the time of the ten month check-up.

At four years, 92 percent of the children had one or several major or minor anomalies. This high figure is partly explained by routine stomatological examination: many of these children were at risk of developing orthodontic problems, requiring a later control. Forty four percent of the major anomalies had already been recognized, some by the previous check-up.

Table II (on the next page) can be supplemented with the following information:
Biological anomalies:

82 children, half of them aged two years, had an iron deficiency anemia: Hb, 9-10 g/l; serum-iron, 80-100 microgm/L; 49 children had hemoglobinopathies; 106 children, a third of them aged four years, had an abnormally increased cholesterol level, over 6 Mmol/L, associated or not to lipodogram changes. 31 children had an abnormal urine analysis.

Ophthalmological anomalies:

598 children, of whom 117 were aged four years, had refraction anomalies for which an examination under mydriatic or further control were requested. 42, four year old children had a defective visual acuity without refraction anomalies.

TABLE II

MAJOR ANOMALIES DETECTED			
AGE	10 MONTHS	TWO YEARS	4 YEARS
NUMBER OF CHILDREN	1233	1249	1038
<u>LAB ANOMALIES</u>			
Hb 9g/L	39	57	11
URINARY INFECTION	1		4
<u>OPHTHAL. ANOMALIES</u>			
Marked Ametropia	6	10	9
STRABISMUS with AMETROPIA and/or AMBLYOPIA	13	17	14
<u>E.N.T. ANOMALIES</u>			
OTITIS Suppurative or serous	65	43	31
HYPOACUSIA 60 Dbs	1		1

E.N.T. Anomalies:

487 children, equally found in the three age groups, had acute or chronic ENT disorders.

Hypoacusia (40-60dB) was found in 125 children; most often hypoacusia was of the transmission type, due to local pathology.

Stomatological anomalies

96 children had one to three cavities and thirty had four cavities or more. Of the 1038 children aged four years, 428 were at risk of orthodontic problems and the family was advised to have them examined at the appearance of permanent teeth.

SUMMARY

An experience of child health check-up has been started in France in 1970. The approach is basically preventive, the check-up aiming at the early detection of somatic, sensorial, mental biochemical and developmental anomalies which might handicap the child upon school entry at four years. The check up comprises a longitudinal study at ten months, two years, and four years. The methodology of this very comprehensive check-up is described in detail. It is the same in the three centers existing in France: two in Paris, and one in Clichy.

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Family Day Care in Sweden

By: Malene Karlsson

Sweden

In Sweden most child-care is organized by the local authorities of the 280 municipalities who are responsible for providing child-care by agreement of the government. Part of the costs are paid by funds from the national government, another part comes from parental payment and the rest is paid by the local authorities. Not all child-care is supplied by the authorities, there is a great amount of private care as well, but about 350,000 children are cared for through different programs organized by the municipalities. 40 percent or about 145,000 children aging from 9 months to 12 years are cared for in family day care homes.

In order to receive governmental funding the municipalities must engage the providers through a collective agreement made by the union and the municipalities' association, and the home must be approved of by a supervisor from the local authorities.

The FDC-providers are paid by the municipality entirely - no money between provider and parent who pay a fee according to their income directly to the municipality. The provider is paid per hour and child, about 10 SKr an hour and child. To pay for food, etc., she receives about 25 SKr a day and child (taxfree). Her income is guaranteed for two months. If a child gets ill or leaves without notice the FDC-provider is paid for two months if no other child is placed instead.

All this is in the collective agreement. Besides this each municipality has a local agreement regulating for instance access of education and equipment.

The weak points of family day care of-course are the lack of education of the providers, their isolation in their homes, and the uncertainty in case of illness. Many municipalities are working to solve these problems.

It's becoming more and more usual to demand at-least a 10 weeks' education as a child-nurse of those who apply to become a FDC-provider. Lots of providers are studying in the evening to become a child-nurse. We have a course of 100 hours called an introduction-course and most providers have taken this. The providers are paid their usual salary while attending this 100 hour course. It's now becoming more and more usual for preschool teachers to start working as FDC-providers. So the number of educated FDC-providers are rapidly increasing.

All over Sweden FDC-providers are starting to work together in groups. This may be like this: Once a week 5 - 10 providers with children meet in a place of their own, in a room in a day care center or in a free-time center. Here they work together with the children, they sing and dance, paint or work with clay, etc. Sometimes they will make an excursion or a picnic. Once in a while the group will meet in the evening to plan and organize their work and try to solve what problems that may arise.

These groups are seen as a very great step forward. The FDC-providers enjoy working with colleagues, they help and inspire each other. The children meet other children and get familiar with other FDC-providers. This makes it possible for the providers to help each other in case of illness or vacations and of-course the parents are pleased about that.

In some municipalities the fdc-providers now can get help from an unemployed youth who gets paid from the government. This has been most successful. The provider gets an extra pair of hands and the youth does something useful and learns at the same time how to nurse a baby and handle a child - a knowledge that certainly will be important some day.

- 3 The magazine - THE FDC-PROVIDER - (or directly translated The Daychild caretaker) is edited by a private publisher. It has shown to fill a great gap. Through this the providers can learn about colleagues in other municipalities - as well
- as in other countries, and many providers and supervisors call us to get help and advice. As we try to write about all interesting ideas and new programs the news is quickly spread and can inspire others.

Last year we started three-day courses for supervisors and by now we have had supervisors from all over Sweden in these courses. Last summer we even had a three-day course for providers and we will repeat the success this summer, gathering providers from all parts of Sweden for 3 intensive days discussing all side of family day care in order to make the care as good as possible.

Singapore People's Association
Developmental Day Care Programme

By: Liew Siop Hai
Singapore

The People's Association (PA) is a community development agency which was established on 1 July 1960. One of its objectives is the organization and promotion of group participation in social, cultural, educational and athletic activities for the people of Singapore. These activities are organized in the 148 community centres scattered throughout the island state.

One of the services which PA provides is child care. This is in response to an emerging need which has resulted from social, economic and other changes in Singapore.

Before describing the programme of PA's day care centres, it is pertinent to outline the kind of society the children are living in. This will give a picture of the particular needs of the Singapore children.

Singapore is an urbanised, industrialising, multi-lingual and multi-cultural society. Due to its expanding economy, women are encouraged to work. An average Singapore family is a small one due to the success of family planning. As a result, children lack sibling interaction which large families of previous generation used to provide. Under the circumstances of the typical two-child family, siblings miss out on the normal social learning which was provided in the early years at home. With the trend towards nuclear family units, senior members of the extended family are no longer available to provide the kind of guidance children once had.

In the average family of working parents, parent-child communication seems to be increasingly limited to greetings, directives, requests, exhortations and reprimands. There is a lack of educational stimulation.

PA's day care centres were established with these needs in mind. The main objectives of the day care programme, therefore, are:

- a) To provide activities which will enhance the awareness of children about the basic ethical, moral values which are deemed desirable to Singapore's people. This will ensure that children grow up fully rooted in a culture which is distinctive to this society.
- b) To provide the child with a sense of security and confidence for him to be able to accept responsibilities as he grows and to be independent. Working mothers have been found either to over compensate, because of the full-day's absence from their children or to leave children very much to their own devices with the TV as babysitter. Work-study habits have to be taught; encouragement for initiative has to be given. These are the skills for living which the day care centre seeks to foster.
- c) To foster sibling skills through placing children at the centres in "contrived sibling groups" covering the age range of 3-5 years. This will enable them to learn how to interact with one another in the closed situations provided by the small group and also socialize with the larger class-group.

- d) To provide educational stimulation. Teachers are trained to talk to children both as a group and individually. Children are encouraged to undertake group projects and to talk about them. Dramatization and the use of music and dance are to give expression to ideas and emotions which are part of the daily programme.
- e) To provide a linguistic environment. Learning of language is an informal activity acquired mainly through play, music and song. The older "siblings" are reinforced in their own skills through some formal lessons.

These are the reasons for PA using the word "developmental" to describe its day care centres. It is to emphasize that the centres provide not only custodial but also professional service aimed at the moral and educational development of the children.

Each centre is manned by four teachers and one assistant (excluding the cook) to look after the 30, three to six year old, children. It is a 12-hour daily programme, with two teachers taking charge of the first half and two teachers for the later half.

PA runs four day care centres. More centres are planned for the future. Most of the children attending the centres reside in the vicinity of the centres or have parents whose offices are nearby. The rate of fees is such as to enable children from all levels of income groups and different walks of life to join the programme.

A Brief Note on the Programmes of
Princess Esin Women's Educational Centre
India

In 1984 the Princess Esin Women's Educational Centre (formerly Nizamia Women's Educational Centre) entered the eleventh year of service in the education, social and economic betterment of women in Hyderabad. The Centre was established in 1973 with the objective of offering employment oriented education to women which would increase their participation in social and civic life. The Centre aims to reach the economically backward section of the population especially the vulnerable groups among women and children.

Situated in the heart of the old city, the Centre has programmes which cater to all sections of the community. Courses are introduced after careful survey of the employment needs in the twin cities. A paucity of trained teachers in preschools resulted in the introduction of a Preschool-Teacher Training Course in 1973. Intermediate passed women are given education for a year to teach children between 2½ - 6 years. The course has proved very effective, with employment assured for all its graduates. The Centre can proudly claim 100% employment for its graduates over the past 10 years. High academic standards are maintained and women joining the institute are expected to perform at their optimum level.

In 1974 a Laboratory Nursery School was added to the Centre's activities. Admission to the school is open to children of low income neighborhoods. Besides the education offered to the children, the nursery school provides an opportunity of practice teaching to the preschool teacher trainees. It also offers scope experimentation in methods of teaching and use of play equipment. Emphasis is laid not only on preparing the child for primary school but also on development of the total personality including aspects of health, nutrition and parent education. The school health programme ensures a health checkup of all children by a pediatrician twice a year. The recommendations of the pediatrician are incorporated in planning the supplementary feeding programme which meets 1/3rd of the daily nutrition requirements of the children.

The course Handicrafts for Child Education was introduced in 1977. It is to fill the need for imaginative and low cost teaching aids for the pre-schools. At present all equipment produced in the country are too expensive to be within the reach of the rural and financially less fortunate urban schools.

Women who have passed VIIth standard are trained in certain selected crafts which are then applied to produce preschool equipment. Some of the crafts taught are soft toy making, silk screen printing, light wood work, fret work and lathe work, cane and bamboo work. Designing, coloring and packing of material are also included as a part of the training. The students who pass out of the course are capable of starting their career either by forming co-operatives or they may opt to start their own small business.

As the first group of students completed their training in Handicrafts for Child Education, the articles made came to the attention of UNICEF and the All India Handicrafts Board both of whom have subsequently extended financial assistance to set up a small Apprenticeship Training-cum-Production Unit on the premises of PEWEC. A small building has been constructed wherein the alumni will design and produce educational play equipment for nursery schools. UNICEF has partially contributed to building construction and has fully financed the cost of machinery, tools, office equipment, furniture, daily allowance for trainees and working capital. With the guidance and supervision of qualified staff of PEWEC, this unit will serve a dual purpose of designing and production of educational equipment for children while providing employment for young women.

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